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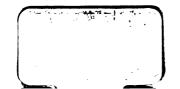
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THE

NORMAL GRAMMAR:

ANALYTIC AND SYNTHETIC.

Illustrated by Diagrams.

BY STEPHEN W. CLARK, A. M.,

AUTHOR OF "FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH GRAIMAR," "ARALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE,"
"GRAIMATIC CHART OF THE ENGLISH SENTENCE," "KEY TO ENGLISH
GRAIMAR AND MODEL EXERGISES."

"The character of its Language determines the mental vigor of a nation."

LONGINUS.

A. S. BARNES & COMPANY, NEW YORK AND CHICAGO. 1870.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR AS A SCIENCE. ENGLISH GRAMMAR AS AN ART.

CLARK'S

ENGLISH GRAMMARS AND ANALYSIS.

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PREFACE.

"THE character of its Language determines the mental vigor of a nation." Not less true is it that the purity of his language determines the social standing of the man. If "speech is the body of thought," the conquest of correct speech is second in importance only to that of accuracy of thought. If Language is the "bridge that spans the chasm between the intellectual world and the physical"-by which thoughts and emotions become audible and visibleby which sounds and sights create thought and feeling, then the study of Language ought to claim the earliest attention of the child. And indeed it does. The child learns language before he learns anything else. In the use of his mother tongue, he learns the ART before he can study the SCIENCE, and that child is fortunate whose early life is spent in the society of those who speak his vernacular in its purity. Accuracy and elegance in speech find their natural counterparts in accuracy and elegance of thought, and in purity of emotion.

While Grammar is an imitative Art, it is also a mental SCIENCE. For the acquisition of the science a Text-Book is demanded. A good text-book should so present the Science as to secure the Art—should so exhibit the Laws of Language as to furnish the pupil a sure test of the correctness of his expression—should so develop the varied structure of sentences and of phrases, as to enable the scholar to make such selection of them as will most clearly, forcibly, and elegantly express his thoughts and emotions—as to enable him to command the language. Its method should be so clear, concise, and natural as to make the study of Grammar attractive. Only such system and method can long command position in our schools.

Twenty-five years have passed since the Author wrote his first work on English Grammar. During all those years, he has personally tested his system and method in the school-room. His "FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR," his "PRACTICAL GRAMMAR," and his "ANALYSES OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE," have found their way into extensive use in every State in the Union. Their gratifying success with the public has prompted the Author to this new effort.

The many and varied criticisms of these books by intelligent, independent Teachers who have used them, the Author's extended, careful study of the science, his full recognition of the errors and defects of his previous works, justify the preparation of the NORMAL GRAMMAR, which—based on the same system and methods of his former works—claims to be an improvement on them all.

The System of Diagrams given in the Author's former works, has been retained, to which important additions and improvements have been made.

The Author's views as to the importance of Diagrams, are corroborated by the decided approval of nearly all Teachers who have used them. Their concurrent testimony settles the question of their utility.

The following extracts from responses of different Teachers, are given as specimens of many:

- "Your Diagrams have aroused an enthusiasm in our juvenile Grammar classes that has never been seen before."
 - "They map out a sentence admirably."
 - "They add much to the excitement of a lively recitation."
- "Object Lessons in Grammar are beautifully exhibited in the use of Diagrams."
- "Our little Architects delight in constructing sentences according to given models. Blank Diagrams drawn on the black board, are copied and filled with appropriate original sentences—thus securing good English compositions in sentences made to order."
- "Diagrams open the eyes of our pupils to new facts in the structure of sentences which many students would not otherwise discover."

Those portions of the Author's former works that have stood the test of intelligent criticism, and have been generally approved, have been retained in this work. Such new matter and illustrations have been added as the advanced condition of the science seemed to demand.

ROCHESTER, N. Y., July, 1870.

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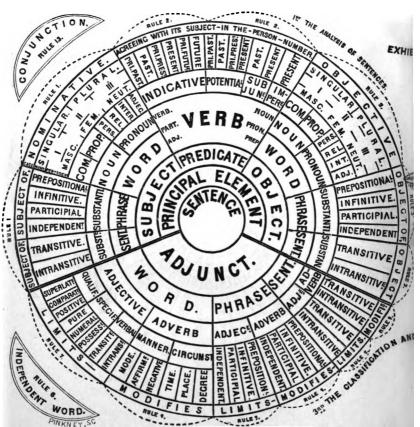
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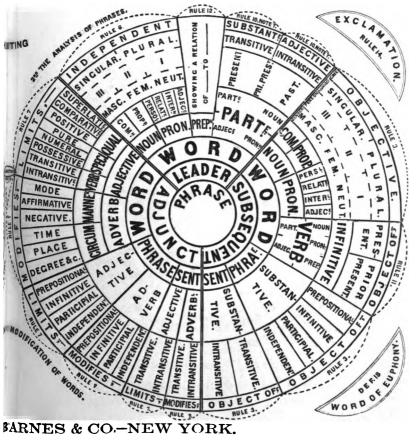
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CLARK'S GRAM



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PART I.

THE ELEMENTS OF LANGUAGE.

DEFINITION 1.—Language is any means of communicating thought, feeling, or purpose.

- Obs. 1.—Thoughts and feelings are indicated—
 - By certain expressions of the features, by gestures, and by other physical acts. This is called Natural Language.
 - 2. By articulate sounds, or by written characters. This is called *Artificial Language*.
- OBS. 2.—Natural language is common to all intelligent beings, and is understood by all without previous instruction.—Smiling, frowning, laughing, weeping, are instances of natural language.
- Obs. 3.—Artificial language is invented by men.—Sounds are made to indicate thoughts by mutual or common consent. Generally, each nation has its peculiar language.

PRINCIPLE.—Artificial Language is

SPOKEN AND WRITTEN.

- DEF. 2.—Spoken Language consists in vocal sounds, indicative of thought, of feeling, or of purpose.
- DEF. 3.—Written Language consists in artificial characters, so arranged and combined as, by common consent, to represent thought or emotion.

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REM.—It is customary to give to every science a name, by which it may be distinguished from other sciences; accordingly, people have agreed to call the science which treats of Language

GRAMMAR.

- DEF. 4.—Grammar is the Science of Language, and the Art of using it.
- Obs. 1.—There are certain *General Principles* of Grammar which are common to all languages.—Hence the term General Grammar.
- OBS. 2.—But each particular language has some idioms and forms of construction *peculiar to itself*.—Hence the term Particutar Grammar.
- REM.—Every Particular Grammar should include all the principles of General Grammar.
- DEF. 5.—English Grammar is the Science of the English language, and the Art of using it.
 - REM.—The articulate sounds of language are indicated by Letters.
- DEF. 6.—A Letter is a character used to indicate a sound, or to modify the sound of another letter.

EXAMPLES.—A in hat, hate, hall, hart.

REM.—Letters are combined to form words.

DEF. 7.—A **Word** is a Letter, or a combination of Letters, used as the *sign* of an idea.

 ${\tt Examples.-} \textit{God-mysterious-stood-slowly-Ah.!-by-and.}$

REM.—Words are combined to form Phrases and Sentences.

DEF. 8.—A **Phrase*** is a combination of words, not constituting an entire **proposition**, but performing a distinct office in the structure of a Sentence or of another Phrase.

^{*} The term Phrase is used in this work, not in its popular, but in its technical sense. The common use of the term is vague and indefinite—applying to any collection of words. In its technical sense, it means only such a combination of words as perform a distinct office in the structure of a Sentence or of another Phrase.

EXAMPLES.—At midnight, in his guarded tent,
The Turk was dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,
Should tremble at his power.

Def. 9.—A **Sentence** is an assemblage of words, so combined as to assert an entire proposition.

EXAMPLES.-1. Night approaches.

- 2. Day is departing.
- 3. William is sleeping.
- 4. Socrates was a philosopher.
- 5. Virtue secures happiness.
- 6. John and George have arrived.
- 7. God created the heaven and the earth.

LETTERS.

FORMS, CLASSES, USES.

REM.—Vocal Sounds are the elements of spoken words.

Letters are the elements of written or printed words.*

OBS.—The English language employs forty-one Elementary Sounds. These sounds are represented by twenty-six Letters— $A \ a, B \ b, C \ c, D \ d, E \ e, F \ f, G \ g, H \ h, I \ i, J \ j, K \ k, L \ l, M \ m, N \ n, O \ o, P \ p, Q \ q, R \ r, S \ s, T \ t, U \ u, V \ v, W \ w, X \ x, Y \ y, Z \ z.$

REM.—These Letters thus arranged are called the English Alphabet.

REM.—Most of the Letters used in our language were derived from the Latin, and are called Roman Letters. We also use a variety called *Italic*, another called **Old English**, another called **Script**, and also many forms of **Ornamental Letters**. These various styles of Letters have each two forms—Capital Letters and Small, or Lower-case Letters.

Obs. 1.—Roman letters are in most common use in the English language.

^{*} Orthogonal Orthography are usually learned from the spelling-book. For the convenience of those classes that need to review these branches, a few pages of the Grammar are devoted to a concise discussion of the forms, the classes, and the uses of letters.

Italic Letters are used in words of special importance, and sometimes in Sentences.

REM.—In the Sacred Scriptures, words supplied by the translators to complete the construction of Sentences according to the English idiom, are printed in *Italics*.

Old English Letters are used for variety or ornament—in title-pages, etc.

OBS. 2.—The small, or "lower-case," Letters are used in forming most Words, and constitute the appropriate form of letters now used in printed works—with the following Exceptions, which provide for the use of

CAPITAL LETTERS.

A word should begin with a capital letter,-

- 1. When it is the first word of a distinct proposition.
- 2. When it is a Proper Name, or a word immediately derived from a Proper Name.

EXAMPLES.—Boston—William—American—Vermonter.

3. When it is a name or appellation of the Supreme Being.

EXAMPLES.-God-Saviour-Holy Spirit-Lord-Omnipotent.

4. When it is the first word of a line of poetry.

EXAMPLE.—" Twinkle, twinkle, little star, How I wonder what you are! Up above the world so high, Like a diamond in the sky."

5. When it is a principal word in a title of a book or office, and sometimes when it is a word of special importance, or used technically.

Examples.-1. "Willard's History of the United States."

- 2. "Burke on the Sublime and Beautiful."
- "The Subject of a Verb should not take the place of the Object."
- 6. When it commences a direct quotation.
- EXAMPLES.—1. "The footman, in his usual phrase, Comes up with 'Madam, dinner stays,'"
 - 2. "Woe to him that saith unto the wood, 'Awake."

7. When it constitutes the Pronoun "I" or the Exclamation "O."

EXAMPLE.-" O, I have loved in youth's fair vernal morn, To spread imagination's wildest wing."

- 8. When it is a Common Noun fully personified.
- Examples. -1. "Sure I Fame's trumpet hear." Cowley.
 - 2. "Here Strife and Faction rule the day."
- 9. The entire word is usually printed in capitals—
 - 1. When it is the title of a book or of a chapter.
 - 2. When it is a word of special importance.
 - 3. When it is a Proper Name subscribed to a document.

The teacher is advised to write Sentences on the Blackboard containing errors in the use of Capital Letters, and require the Pupils to correct them.

Obs. 1.—Letters are of various sizes, and have their corresponding appropriate names. The varieties of type in most common use are the following:

Great Primer, Pica. Small Pica, Long Primer, Bourgeois,

Brevier, Minion. Nonpareil. Agate, Pearl,

Obs. 2.—The Sounds of the English Lan- Subvocals, and guage are distinguished as-

Obs. 3.—Vocal Sounds are produced by the vibrations of air in the throat.

REM.—The English language has fifteen vocal sounds—of which

A represents five; as heard in ale, at, air, art, all.

E two; as in she, shed. I two ; "

bind, bit. three; " told, not, who. 0

three: " true, trust, full.

Obs. 4.—Subvocal Sounds—represented by the letters b, d, g, j, 1, m, n, ng, r, th, v, w, z, zh, and y-are vocal sounds partly suppressed or modified by the *tongue*, the *palate*, the *teeth*, or the *lips*. They are, therefore, distinguished as **Linguals**, **Palatals**, **Dentals**, and **Labials**.

Obs. 5.—Aspirates—represented by f, h, k, p, s, t, th, sh, ch, and wh—are only whispers, produced by forcing breath through the organs of speech without vocalizing it.

Obs. 6.—The *Letters* of the Alphabet are dis- { *Vowels* and tinguished as— { *Consonants*.

Obs. 7.—'The **Vowels** represent pure Vocal sounds. The Vowels are a, e, i, o, u, and sometimes w and y.

Obs. 8.—The Consonants represent Subvocal sounds and Aspirates.

The Consonants are b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z.

W and y sometimes represent Vocals, and are then Vowels.

Rem.—Consonants are distinguished as— { Semivowels and Mutes.

Obs. 9.—Semivowels (f, h, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, x, z, and c and g soft) may represent sounds without the aid of a vowel.

Mutes (b, d, k, p, q, t, and c and g hard) can not be sounded without the aid of a Vowel. Mutes at the end of words or syllables stop the voice.—Cap, hat, back, bad, cab.

REM.—L, m, n, and r, are called Liquids, because the sounds represented by them flow readily into similar or other sounds.

REM.—Letters differ in the variety of their representation.

- 1. Generally a Letter represents a peculiar sound. But,
- 2. Some Letters represent more than one sound.

EXAMPLES.—A in fate, far, fall, fat.—O in do, go, on.

- 3. Sometimes different Letters represent the same sound. **EXAMPLES.** -A and e in slay, they; e and e in case, face.
 - 4. Sometimes a Letter is used that does not represent any sound.

Examples.—E in time; n in hymn, kiln.

Letters thus used are said to be Silent.

Silent Letters are used-

- 1. To modify the sounds of other Letters; and
- 2. To denote the origin or definition of the word.

OBS. 10.—One Letter often represents the sound of another Letter.

EXAMPLES.-E for a-they; e for u-her; i for u-sir.

REM.—The Letter x always represents either the Letter z or the two letters k and s.

EXAMPLES.—Xenophon; tax = taks; inflexible = infleksible.

Obs. 11.—A Letter is said to be **Long** when its sound can be protracted at will, as a in say—ay.

OBS.—A Letter is said to be Short when the sound represented by it can not be protracted, as a in hat.

REM.—Some Letters combine—

- 1. To form one sound.
- 2. To form a combination of sounds.

OBS.—Vowels unite with the same, or with other vowels, to form Diphthongs and Digraphs, Triphthongs and Trigraphs.

OBS.—A Diphthong is a union of two vowels in one syllable, in which both vowels are sounded.

EXAMPLES. - Oi in boil, ou in thou.

OBS.—A Digraph is a union of two vowels in one syllable, in which only one of the vowels is sounded.

EXAMPLES.—Ea in Eagle, ei in neither, oe in subpoena.

Obs.—A Triphthong is a union of three vowels in one syllable, all of which are sounded.

EXAMPLES .- Uoy in buoyancy.

Obs.—A Trigraph is a union of three vowels in one syllable, not all of which are sounded.

EXAMPLES.-Eau in beauty, ieu in adieu.

Let the Pupils now turn to page 38, and in some of the Sentences name—

- 1. All the Vowels. 2. All the Semirowels.
- 3. All the Mutes. 4. All the Liquids.
- 5. All the Diphthongs and Digraphs.
- 6. All the Triphthongs and Trigraphs.

OBS.—Two or more consonants may unite to form a complex sound.

EXAMPLES.-Br-, bring; cl-, cling; ng-, cling.

REM.—The same consonant repeated in the same syllable is called a *Double Consonant*; as *ll* in *Ball*, *rr* in *Burr*.



REM.—Consonants unite with Vowels to modify their sound or signification.

EXAMPLES.—A-ay-hay-eight-they.

REM.—For convenience in articulation, most words are divided into Parts, called Syllables; hence,

OBS.—A Syllable is a whole Word, or such part of a Word as is uttered by one impulse of the voice.

EXAMPLES .- Man-man-ly-man-li-ness-un-man-ly.

One Syllable that completes a word is called a Monosyllable.

EXAMPLES.-Man-good-sing-form.

Two Syllables united to form a word are called a Dissyllable.

EXAMPLES.—Manly—goodness—singing—inform.

Three Syllables that complete a word are called a Trisyllable.

EXAMPLES.—Manliness—goodnesses—informing.

Four or more Syllables that complete a word are called a *Poly-syllable*.

EXAMPLES.—Unmanliness-information.

REM.—Every Syllable must have one vowel sound. It may have one or more consonants.

OBS.—A Consonant placed before a Vowel in the same Syllable is called an Antecedent. A Consonant placed after a Vowel in the same Syllable is called a Consequent.

EXERCISES in the Analysis of Words.

Hat - is a Monosyllable.

h - is a Consonant-Semivowel-Antecedent to its vowel a.

a - is a Vowel-short sound.

t - is a Consonant-Mute-Consequent to its vowel a.

Mary - is a Dissyllable-accent on the first.

m - is a Consonant-Semivowel-Liquid-Antecedent to its vowel a.

a - is a Vowel-long sound.

r — is a Consonant—Semivowel—Liquid—Antecedent to its vowel y.

y - is a Vowel-short sound.

Beautiful — is a Trisyllable—accent on the first.

b - is a Consonant-Mute-Liquid-Antecedent to its vowel w.

eau — is a Trigraph—having the sound of u long.

e - is a Vowel not sounded.

a - is a Vowel not sounded.

u - is a Vowel-long sound.

t - is a Consonant-Mute-Antecedent to its vowel i.

i - is a Vowel-long sound-not accented.

f - is a Consonant-Semivowel-Antecedent to its vowel w.

u - is a Vowel-third or medial sound.

1 - is a Consonant-Semivowel-Liquid-Consequent to its vowel w.

By these MODELS, let the following words be analyzed:

Benediction. Faith. Sincere. Gratitude. Unanimity. Hope. Duty. Weariness. Constellation. Meditativeness. Love. Thankfulness. Individual. Candor. Celebrating. Meditative. Zeal. Fully. Honesty. Consanguinity. Mediation. Oceanica. Works. Easy, Hopefully.

WORDS.

CLASSIFICATION.

Remark.—In a Discourse, words are used—

- 1. As Names of beings, places, or things;
- 2. As Substitutes for names or facts;
- 3. As Qualifiers or Limiters of names;
- 4. To assert action, being, or condition;
- 5. To modify an assertion or a quality;
- 6. To express relations of things or of thoughts;
- 7. To introduce or to connect Words and Sentences;
- 8. To express a sudden or an intense emotion: or.
- 9. For Rhetorical effect.

Hence, by their uses-

Words are distinguished as,

1. Nouns.

5. Adverbs,

2. Pronouns,

6. Prepositions,

3. Adjectives,

7. Conjunctions

4. Verbs,

8. Exclamations. and

9. Words of Euphony.

DEF. 10.—A Word used as the name of a being, of a place, or of a thing, is called

A Noun.

Examples. — God—man—sea—way—wonders—emotion.

Def. 11.—A Word used for a Noun, is called

A Pronoun.

Examples.-I—thou—he—she—it—who—what—that.

DEF. 12.—A Word used to qualify, or otherwise limit a Noun or a Pronoun, is called

An Adjective.

EXAMPLES.—Mysterious [way]—his [wonders]—the [sea].

DEF. 13.—A Word used to assert an act, being, or state, of a person or of a thing, is called

A Verb.

EXAMPLES.-[God] moves-[He] plants-[Day] declines.

Def. 14.—A Word used to modify the signification of a Verb, of an Adjective, or of another Modifier, is called

An Adverb.

EXAMPLES.-1. "A mist rose slowly from the lake."

2. "The task was exceedingly DIFFICULT."

3. "He came between us very oft."

Def. 15.—A Word used to express a relation of words to each other, is called

A Preposition.

Examples.-1. "At midnight, in his guarded tent,

2. The Turk was dreaming of the hour."

Def. 16.—A Word used to connect Words, Phrases, and Sentences, is called

A Conjunction.

EXAMPLES.-1. "And I am glad that he has lived thus long."

2. "God created the HEAVEN and the EARTH."

DEF. 17.—A Word used to express a sudden or intense emotion, is called

An Exclamation.

EXAMPLES .- Alas !-- oh !-- shocking !

DEF. 18.—A Word used chiefly for the sake of sound, is called

A Word of Euphony.

Examples .-- 1. " There are no idlers here."

PAGE

- 2. "Now, then, we are prepared to define our position."
- 3. "Even in our ashes, live their wonted fires."

OBS .- For observations on " Words of Euphony," see Part II.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

PAGI	D			
15.	What is Language?	ee	Def.	1.
	What language is Natural?—what, Artificial? S	ee	Obs.	1.
	Artificial language is how distinguished?			
	What is Spoken Language?	ee	Def.	2.
	What is Written Language?	ee	Def.	3.
	What is Grammar?	ee	Def.	4.
16.	What is English Grammar?	ee	Def.	5.
	What is a Letter?	ee	Def.	6.
	What is a Word?	ee	Def.	7.
	What is a Phrase?S	ee	Def.	8.
17.	What is a Sentence?S	ee	Def.	9.
	By their uses, how are words classified?			
	What is a Noun?	ee	Def.	10.
18.	What is a Pronoun?	ee	Def.	11.
	What is an Adjective?	ee	Def.	12.
	What is a Verb?			
	What is an Adverb?	ee	Def.	14.
	What is a Preposition?	lee	Def.	15.
	What is a Conjunction?			
19.				
	What is a Word of Euphony?			
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			

PHRASES.

ANALYSIS OF PHRASES.

A Phrase consists of { Principal Elements and Adjunct Elements.

DEF. 19.—The Principal Elements of a Phrase are the words necessary to its structure.

Examples.—Of light—round path—amid shade—by consequences—of youth.

- 1. "Rays | of limpid light | gleamed | round their path | ."
- 2. "Birds sang | amid the sprouting shade | ."
- 3. "Manhood is disgraced | by the consequences | of neglected youth | ."

DEF. 20.—The **Adjuncts of a Phrase** are the words used to modify or limit the offices of other words in the Phrase.

Examples.-Limpid-their-the whispering-the varied.

- 1. "Rays | of limpid light | gleamed | round their path | ."
- 2. "Birds sang | amid the whispering shade | ."
- 3. "See! Winter comes | to rule the varied year | ."

The Principal Elements of a Phrase consist of

The Leader and the Subsequent.

DEF. 21.—The **Leader of a Phrase** is the word used to *introduce* the Phrase—generally connecting its Subsequent to the word which the Phrase modifies or limits.

 ${\bf Examples.} - Like-in-of-of-To-question.$

- 1. "Like a spirit | it | came, | in the van | of a storm | ."
- 3. "The previous question being demanded, | the debate closed."

OBS.—The Leader of a Phrase is *commonly* the first word *in position*—but not *always*; Adjuncts may precede. [See the last example.]

The Leader of a Phrase may be { A Preposition, A Participle, A Substantive.

Examples.—1. "I am monarch of all I survey;
My right there is none to dispute."

- 2. "Taking a madman's sword | to prevent | his doing mischief, | can not be regarded | as robbing him ! ."
 - 3. "The evening star having disappeared, | we returned to the castle."
- Def. 22.—A **Participle** is a word derived from a Verb, retaining the signification of its verb, while it also performs the office of some other "part of speech."

Obs.--For obervations on Participles, see page 111.

DEF. 23.—The **Subsequent of a Phrase** is the Element which follows the Leader as its object of action or relation, or which depends on it in construction.

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} \bf Examples.-Parting-hall-great-coats-comforters-handkerchiefs-mouth-ears-walking-canes-feet. \end{tabular}$

"At parting, | too, there was a long ceremony | in the hall, | buttoning up great-coats, | tying on woolen comforters,—fixing silk handkerchiefs over the mouth and up to the ears, and grasping sturdy walking-canes to support unsteady feet."

The Subsequent of a Phrase may be A Phrase, or A Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. A Word.—" Sweet was the sound, when oft | at evening's close | Up yonder Aill | the village murmur rose."
- 2. A Phrase.—" A habit | of moving quickly, | is another way | of gaining time | ."
 - A Sentence.—" The footman, in his usual phrase, Comes up with 'Madam, dinner stays.""

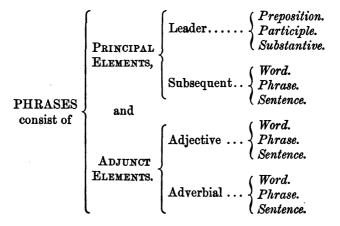
Obs. 1.—The Subsequent of a Phrase is sometimes suppressed.

EXAMPLE.—" These crowd around, to ask him of his health."

OBS. 2.—When any Element of a Phrase is suppressed, that part of the Phrase which is expressed—whether Leader, Subsequent, or Adjunct—is to be regarded as the *representative* of the whole Phrase, and in the analysis of a Sentence, it should be construed as the whole Phrase would be if fully expressed.

- EXAMPLES.-1. "These crowd around," i. e., around him.
 - 2. "William will come home," i. e., to his home.
 - 8. "Mary has come to school early," i. e., at an early hour.
- "Around," as an Element in the Sentence, is an Adverb—for it is a representative of the Adverbial Phrase, around him.
- "Around," as an Element in the Phrase, is a Preposition—showing a relation of "crowd" to "him," understood.
- "Home," as an Element in the Sentence, is an Adverb—for it is a representative of the Adverbial Phrase, to his home.
- "Home," as an Element in the Phrase, is a Noun—Object of the Preposition to, understood.
- "Early," as an Element in the Sentence, is an Adverb—for it is a representative of the Adverbial Phrase, at an early hour.
- "Early," as an Element in the Phrase, is an Adjective—used to limit the word hour, understood.

RECAPITULATION.



CLASSIFICATION.

REMARK.—Phrases are distinguished by their uses, by their forms, and by their structure.

I. THE OFFICES OF PHRASES.

REMARK.—Phrases are used as substitutes for Nouns, Adjectives, and Adverbs; or they are independent in construction. Hence, by their offices,

Phrases are distinguished as,

1. Substantive.

2. Adjective,

Adverbial,
 Independent.

Def. 24.—A Substantive Phrase is a phrase used as the Subject or the Object of a Verb, or the Object of a Preposition.

Examples.-1. " To be, contents his natural desire."

- 2. "His being a minister, prevented his rising to civil power."
- 8. "I doubted his having been a soldier."
- 4. "The crime of being a young man, I shall attempt neither to palliate nor deny."

What "contents his natural desire?"

" To be,"-i. e., mere existence.

" I doubted" - What?

"His having been a soldier."

"The crime of"-What?

"Being a young man."

OBS.—Such Phrases are called Substantive Phrases, because they perform offices similar to those of Nouns and of Pronouns.

Def. 25.—An Adjective Phrase is a phrase used to qualify or limit the application of a Noun or of a Pronoun.

EXAMPLES.-1. "The time of my departure is at hand."

2. "Forgetting the things that are behind, I press forward."

What "time?"

"Of my departure."

EXAMPLES. -3. "The dishes of luxury cover his table."

What "dishes?"

" Of luxury."

REM.—Whenever a Phrase is used to qualify or describe a Noun or a Pronoun, it is Adjective.

Def. 26.—An Adverbial Phrase is a phrase used to modify the signification of a Verb, of an Adjective, or of an Adverb.

EXAMPLES.-1. "God moves in a musterious way."

2. "He is powerful for evil-impotent for good."

" God moves"-How?

"In a mysterious way."

" Powerful"-In what respect?

" For evil."

REM.—Any Phrase used to ask or to answer the questions how? why? where? when? etc., is Adverbial.

Def. 27.—An Independent Phrase is a phrase not grammatically connected with any other element.

EXAMPLE.—" The hour having arrived, we commenced the exercises."

Obs.—The office of an Independent Phrase is Logical, not Gram-Thus, in the sentence, "The hour having arrived, we commenced the exercises," the phrase "the hour having arrived," indicates the time of commencing the exercises; but it is not joined to the word "commenced" by any connecting word.

II. THE FORMS OF PHRASES.

Phrases are distinguished also by their forms, as,

1. Prepositional,

3. Participial,

2. Infinitive.

3. Parmupun, 4. Independent.

Def. 28.—A Prepositional Phrase is a phrase in-

troduced by a Preposition, having a Noun or a Pronoun as its object of relation.

Examples.—1. "In a mysterious way." "To me."

2. "The time of my departure is at hand."

DEF. 29.—An **Infinitive Phrase** is a phrase introduced by the Preposition To, having a Verb as its object of relation.

EXAMPLES.-1. "To love"-" To study"-" To be diligent."

- 2. "We ought not to be salisfied with present attainments."
- 8. "I sit me down a pensive hour to spend."

DEF. 30.—A Participial Phrase is a phrase introduced by a Participle, having an Object or an Adjunct.

Examples.—1. "Scaling yonder peak."

"Scaling yonder peak I see "Scaling yonder peak I see "Scaling yonder peak"

- Moving quickly—gaining time.
 A habit of moving quickly, is another way of gaining time.
- Crushed to earth."Truth crushed to earth will rise again."

DEF. 31.—An Independent Phrase is a phrase introduced by a Noun or a Pronoun, followed by a Participle depending upon it.

EXAMPLES.-1. The cars having left, we chartered a coach.

Thus talking, hand being in hand, And they passed on to their blissful bower."

III. THE STRUCTURE OF PHRASES.

PRINCIPLE.

By their structure, Phrases are distinguished as

Simple or Compound,
Transitive or Intransitive,
Principal or Auxiliary,
Complex,
Mixed.

DEF. 32.—A Simple Phrase is a phrase having but one Leader and one Subsequent.

EXAMPLES.-1. " Enough remains of glimmering light,

- 2. To guide the wanderer's steps aright."
- 8. "Thought meeting thought, and will preventing will."

DEF. 33.—A Compound Phrase is a phrase having two or more Leaders or Subsequents joined in the same construction.

EXAMPLES.—1. "The engraver has placed the Conjunction without and above the circle."

- "Rewarding and punishing actions by any other rule, would appear much harder to be accounted for, by minds formed as he has formed ours."
- "The whole animal kingdom is in a state of constant decay and renovation."
- 4. "Habits, formed in childhood and youth, last a whole lifetime."

Def. 34.—A **Transitive Phrase** is a phrase whose Subsequent is a *Transitive Verb* or *Participle*.

EXAMPLES.—1. "He does not venture to try the effect of his imperial voice, in hushing its stormy billows, and bidding its proud waves to stay themselves at his feet."

DEF. 35.—An **Intransitive Phrase** is a phrase whose Subsequent is a *Noun* or a *Pronoun*, or an *Intransitive Verb* or *Participle*.

EXAMPLES .-- 1. "I call to you with all my voice."

- 2. "To die, to sleep, perchance to dream."
- 3. "I saw an eagle, wheeling near its brow."

DEF. 36.—A Complex Phrase is a phrase whose Leader, Subsequent, or Adjunct, is qualified by another phrase.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Some in the FIELDS of purest ether play, And bask and whiten in the BLAZE of day."

2. "The greatest possible intimacy should never induce you TO DISPENSE with politeness."

- 8. "The office of wisely developing the minds of young women, should be ranked among the most honorable employments in the land."
- "Long years have elapsed since I gazed on the scene, Which my fancy still robed in its freshness of green."
- Dost thou aspire to JUDGE between the Lord Of Nature and his works?"

DEF. 37.—A **Mixed Phrase** is a compound phrase, having one or more Transitive Subsequents and one or more Intransitive Subsequents.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Forbade to wade through slaughter to a throne, And shut the gates of mercy on mankind."

2. "The old gentleman had never entertained the idea or William's leaving home and engaging in business for himself."

RECAPITULATION.

	Uses.	Substantive. Adjective. Adverbial. Independent.
PHRASES are distinguished by their	Forms.	Prepositional. Infinitive. Participial. Independent.
	Structure.	Simple. Compound. Transitive. Intransitive. Principal. Auxiliary. Complex. Mixed,

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

PAGI	
20.	What are the Distinct Elements of Phrases?
	What are Principal Elements of Phrases? See Def. 19.
20.	What are Adjunct Elements of Phrases? See Def. 20.
	The Principal Elements consist of what?
	What is the Leader of a Phrase?
21.	
	What is the Subsequent of a Phrase?Def. 23.
	It may consist of what?
23.	In how many ways are Phrases distinguished?
	By their offices how are Phrases classified?
	What is a Substantive Phrase?—an Adjective Phrase? Def. 24, 25.
24.	What is an Adverbial Phrase?
	What is an Independent Phrase?
	By their forms how are Phrases classified?
	What is a Prepositional Phrase?
25 .	What is an Infinitive Phrase?
	What is a Participial Phrase?
	What is an Independent Phrase?
	By their structure, how are Phrases distinguished?
	What is a Simple Phrase?—a Compound Phrase? Def. 32, 33.
2 6.	What is a Transitive Phrase?
	What is an Intransitive Phrase?
	What is a Complex Dhugas? a Mined Dhugas? Dof 96 97

SENTENCES.

REMARK.—A Sentence may be resolved into its Elements.

DEF. 38.—The **Elements of a Sentence** are the parts which enter into its structure.

REM.—In the structure of Sentences, certain general principles are involved, which are common to all languages.

- 1. We have that of which something is declared. This is called the Subject of the Sentence.
 - 2. There must be a word or words used to declare—positively,

negatively, interrogatively, or conditionally—something of the subject. This is called the *Predicate*.

These two parts are essential to the structure of a Sentence.

3. The Predicates of some Sentences assert acts which pass over to some persons or things.

The names of such persons, places, or things are called *Object Elements*.

4. There are often other Elements, used to qualify, to limit, or to modify the various parts of Sentences. These are called Adjunct Elements.

The Parts of a Sentence | Principal Elements, and are distinguished as | Adjunct Elements.

Def. 39.—The **Principal Elements of a Sentence** are the parts which make the unqualified assertion.

EXAMPLES .- 1. Birds fly.

2. The sun shines.

6. IIIC 84/6 8/44/808.

The night passed away in song."
 The mountains showed their gray heads."

5. "Thy bounty shines in Autumn, unconfined,

And spreads a common feast for all that live."

6. "The king of shadows loves a shining mark."

7. "In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth."

DEF. 40.—The Adjunct Elements of a Sentence are such as describe or modify other elements.

EXAMPLES.-1. " The | night passed | away | in song."

2. "The | king | of shadows | loves | a | shining | mark."

8. " There | in his noisy mansion, | skilled to rule, |

4. The | village | master | taught | his | little | school | ."

REM.—There are still other words, which are neither Principal Elements nor Adjuncts,—words which are sometimes used in connection with the Sentence, but which do not constitute an integral part of it. Hence,

DEF. 41.—Words accompanying a Sentence without entering into its structure, are called

Attendant Elements.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Lend me your songs, ye nightingales!"

2. " O Liberty! I wait for thee."

8. " There are no idlers here."

4. "I sit me down, a pensive hour to spend."

5. "Even in our ashes live their wonted fires."

6. "Friends, Romans, Countrymen! lend me your ears."

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.

ANALYSIS AND CLASSIFICATION.

The Principal Elements of a Sentence are,

The Subject, | The Predicate, | The Object.

OBS.—Every Sentence must have, at least, one Subject and one Predicate, expressed or understood.

THE SUBJECT.

DEF. 42.—The Subject of a Sentence is that of which something is asserted.

OBS. 1.—The Subject of a Sentence is always Substantive in its office; it may be a Noun, or a Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence used for a Noun. It may be determined by its answering the question who? or what? placed before the Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

- a. A Noun.-1. Birds fly.-What fly?
 - 2. "Knowledge is power."-What is power?
 - 3. " Truth crushed to earth, will rise again."
- b. A Pronoun.-4. We come.-Who come?
 - 5. They are satisfied. Who are satisfied?
 - 6. " They that seek me early, shall find me."
- c. A Phrass.—7. "To do good, is the duty of all men."—What is duty?
 8. "His being a minister, prevented his rising to civil power.".
- d. A Sentence.—9. "At what time he took orders, doth not appear," 10. "That all men are created equal, is a self-evident truth."—What is
 - "That all men are created equal, is a self-evident truth."—What is a self-evident truth?

OBS. 2.—A Subject of a Sentence having Adjuncts, is called a Modified Subject.

Example.-" The king of shadows loves a shining mark."

THE PREDICATE.

DEF. 43.—The **Predicate of a Sentence** is the Word or Words that express what is asserted of the Subject.

OBS.—The Predicate consists of a Verb, with or without another Verb, a Participle, an Adjective, a Noun, a Pronoun, or a Preposition.

EXAMPLES.

- a. A Verb only .- 1. Birds fly.
 - 2. Quadrupeds run.
 - 3. "Here sleeps he now alone,"
- b. Two Verbs .- 4. We shall go.
 - 5. I do remember.
 - 6. "Ye shall not in the lofty pine Disturb the sparrow's nest."
- c. A Verb and a Participle.—7. John was injured.
 - 8. Willie is reading.9. "Thou art perched sloft on the beetling crag."
- d. A Verb and an Adjective .- 10. James became noor.
 - 11. Warner is sleepy.
 - 12. "And the waves are white below."
- e. A Verb and a Noun.-13. God is love.
 - 14. We are friends.
 - 15. "The proper study of mankind is man."
- f. A Verb and a Pronoun. -16. It is I.
 - 17. Who are you?
 - 18. " Thine is the kingdom."
- g. A Verb and a Preposition.—19. Its idle hopes are o'er
 - 20. That business has been attended to.

REMARKS.—The Predicate is varied not only in form, but also in its functions.

- 1. It may assert an act—as, William walks.
- 2. It may assert being-as, God exists.
- 3. It may assert quality—as, Sugar is sweet.
- 4. It may assert possession—as, "Thine is the kingdom."
- 5. It may assert identity—as, It is I.

- 6. It may assert condition—as, "Its idle hopes are o'er."
- It may assert change of condition—as, "His palsied hand waxed strong."

LOGICAL PREDICATE. GRAMMATICAL PREDICATE.

OBS. 1.—The term "Predicate" has two applications—a Logical and a Grammatical. The Logical Predicate includes the Grammatical Predicate and its Object. Thus, in the sentence,

"The king of shadows loves a shining mark,"

- "Loves a shining mark," is the Logical Predicate;
- "Loves" is the Grammatical Predicate.
- OBS. 2.—In Sentences that have no Objects, the Logical and the Grammatical Predicates are identical. Thus, in the sentence,
 - "The oaks of the mountains fall,"
- " Fall" is both the Logical and the Grammatical Predicate.
- OBS. 3.—The Modified Predicate includes the Grammatical Predicate and its Adjuncts. Thus, in the sentence,
 - "Hollow winds are in the pines,"
- "Are in the pines," is the Modified Predicate of "winds."
 "Are" is the Grammatical Predicate.

THE OBJECT.

REM.—The Object of a Sentence, being distinct from the Grammatical Predicate, is properly regarded as a distinct Element in the structure of such Sentences as contain Objects. Hence,

DEF. 44.—The **Object of a Sentence** is the Word or Words on which the act, expressed by the Predicate, terminates.

Obs. 1.—The Object of a Sentence is a Noun, or a Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence used for a Noun. It may be determined by its answering the question whom? or what? placed immediately after the Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

- a. A Nown.-1. John saws wood-saws what?
 - 2. Birds build nests—build what?
 - 3. "Shall joy light the face of the Indian ?"

- b. A Pronoun.-4. I have seen him-seen whom?
 - 5. Whom seekest thou?
 - 6. "Oft the shepherd called thee to his flock."
- c. A Phrase.-7. "I regret his being absent."-I regret what?
- d. A Sentence.-8. "The fool hath said in his heart, There is no God."
 - 9. "And God said, Let there be light."

Modified Object.

OBS. 2.—An Object that has Adjuncts is said to be modified.

EXAMPLE.—We have reached the end of the chapter. Here "end" is the Object. "The end of the chapter" is the Modified Object.

ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.

ANALYSIS AND CLASSIFICATION.

An Adjunct Element may be $\begin{cases} A \text{ Word,} \\ A \text{ Phrase, or} \\ A \text{ Sentence.} \end{cases}$

EXAMPLES

- a. A Word .- 1. We were walking homeward .- Whither?
 - 2. We shall arrive soon. When?
 - 3. "Darkly waves each giant bough."
- b. A Phrase .- 1. We were walking toward home .- Whither?
 - 2. We shall arrive in a short time .- When ?
- c. A Sentence.-1. Students, who study, will improve.
 - 2. Students will improve, if they study.

REM.—Adjuncts are used to limit or describe things, or to modify acts or qualities. Hence,

Adjuncts are distinguished as { Adjective or Adverbial.

Obs. 1.—Adjective Adjuncts, whether Words, Phrases, or Sentences, are such as answer the questions, What? What kind? Whose? How many? etc. They are attached, in construction, to Nouns and to Pronouns.

Obs. 2.—Adverbial Adjuncts—Words, Phrases, or Sentences—are such as answer the questions, How? Why? Where? Whence? Whither? etc. They are attached to Verbs, to Adjectives, to Participles, and to Adverbs.

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LOGICAL ADJUNCTS.

Obs. 3.—Words, Phrases, and Sentences, having no Grammatical connection with other Elements in a Sentence, often perform Adjunct offices, by limiting or modifying the application of other Elements. Such are properly called Logical Adjuncts.

EXAMPLES.

- a. Words.-1. Webster, the Statesman, is remotely related to Webster, the Lexicographer.
- b. Phrases.-1. "Napoleon having fallen, there is no more cause for alarm."
- c. Sentence.-" It is possible that Anna will come."

29. How are the Elements of Sentences classified?

REM.—The words "Statesman" and "Lexicographer" are used to distinguish the two "Websters;" the Phrase "Napoleon having fallen," to tell why there is no more cause for alarm; and "Anna will come," is a Sentence used to tell what is meant by the word "it."

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW. 28. What is a Sentence?.....See Def. 38.

	What are Principal Elements of a Sentence? See Def. 39.
	What are Adjunct Elements?See Def. 40.
3 0.	What are Attendant Elements?See Def. 41.
	What are the Principal Elements of a Sentence?
	What is the Subject of a Sentence?See Def. 42.
	By what method can you ascertain what is the
	Subject of any Sentence?See Obs. 1.
	Make a Sentence having a Word Subject.
	Make a Sentence having a Phrase Subject.
	Make a Sentence having a Sentence Subject.
31.	What is a Modified Subject?
	What is the <i>Predicate</i> of a Sentence?See Def. 43.
32 .	What is a Logical Predicate?
	What is a Grammatical Predicate?
	What is a Modified Predicate?
	What is the Object?See Def. 44.
	How can you determine what is the Object of any
	Sentence?See Obs. 1.
83.	What is a Modified Object?See Obs. 2.
	What are Adjunct Elements of Sentences?

RECAPITULATION.

		$\left\{ egin{aligned} ext{Subject} & \dots & \left\{ egin{aligned} ext{Word} & \dots & \left\{ egin{aligned} ext{Noun.} \\ ext{Pronoun.} \\ ext{Substantive.} \\ ext{Sentence.} & \dots & \text{Substantive.} \end{aligned} ight.$	
	PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	Predicate A participle A par	
		$egin{aligned} ext{Object} \dots & egin{aligned} ext{Word} \dots & ext{Noun.} \ ext{Pronoun.} \ ext{Phrase} \dots & ext{Substantive.} \ ext{Sentence} \dots & ext{Substantive.} \end{aligned}$	
	Adjunct Elements.	$egin{aligned} & Grammati- \ cal \dots \ & Sentence. \ \ & Adjective. \ & Adjective$	
		Substantive, independent in construction, yet, in logical office, Adjective or Adverbial.	

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

"God moves in a mysterious way, His wonders to perform; He plants his footsteps in the sea And rides upon the storm."

Quest. Of whom is something asserted in the lines above written?

Ans. Something is said concerning "God."

What is said of God?

A. God "moves."

How does God move?

A. "In a mysterious way."

"God moves in a mysterious way"—why?

A. "To perform his wonders."

Concerning whom is something more said?

A. Something more is said concerning "God.

Why do you think so?

A. Because, in this connection, "He" means God.

What more is said of God?

A. He "plants."

He plants what?

A. He plants "footsteps."

He plants whose footsteps?

A. "His" footsteps.

He plants his footsteps-where?

A. " In the sea."

What more is said of God?

A. He "rides."

He rides—where?

A. " Upon the storm."

In the lines written above, what is the use or office of the word "God?"

A. It is used to tell who "moves."

What is the use of the word "moves?"

A. To tell what God does.

What is the use of "in a mysterious way?"

A. To tell how God moves.

What is the use of "his wonders to perform?"

A. To tell for what purpose God moves.

What is the use of "He?"

A. To tell who "plants footsteps" and "rides."

What is the use of "plants?"

A. To tell what "He" does.

What is the use of "his?"

A. To tell whose footsteps.

What is the use of "footsteps?"

A. To tell what He plants.

What is the use of "in the sea?"

A. To tell where He plants footsteps.

What is the use of "rides?"

A. To tell what "He" does.

What is the use of "upon the storm?"

A. To tell where He rides.

REMARK.—The young Pupil has seen, in this exposition of the four lines written above, that words have meaning; and that when they are properly put together, they convey the thoughts of the person who wrote them, to those who read them.

EF Let the following Sentences be analyzed in the same manner—the teacher being careful to ask appropriate questions.

```
1. "The | sun | rose | on the sea | ."
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^{2. &}quot;A | mist | rose | slowly | from the lake | ."

^{3. &}quot;The | night | passed | away | in song | ."

^{4. &}quot;Morning | returned | in joy | ."

^{5. &}quot;The | mountains | showed | their | gray | heads | .

^{6. &}quot;The | blue | face | of ocean | smiled | ."

^{7. &}quot;Day | declines | ."

^{8. &}quot;Hollow | winds | are | in the pines | ."
9. "Darkly | moves | each | giant | bough, |

O'er the sky's last crimson glow | ."

^{10. &}quot;Nature's | richest | dyes |
Are floating | o'er Italian skies."

^{11. &}quot; A golden staff his steps supported."

^{12. &}quot;The dying notes still murmur on the string."

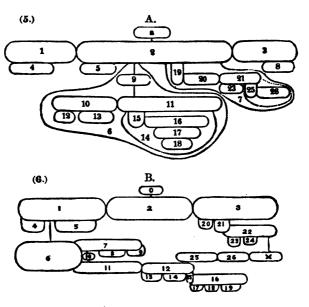
^{18. &}quot;A purple robe his dying frame shall fold."

- 14. "At the heaving billows, stood the meager form of Care"
- 15. "Oft the shepherd called thee to his flock."
- 16. "The comely tear steals o'er the cheek."
- 17. "The storms of wintry Time will quickly pass."
- 18. "Thus in some deep retirement would I pass The winter-glooms, with friends of picasant soul."
- "Then comes the father of the tempest forth, Wrapt in thick glooms."
- "Thy bounty shines in Autumn, unconfined, And spreads a common feast for all that live."
- 21. "Some in the fields of purest ether play, And bask and whiten in the blaze of day."
- 22. "On thy fair bosom, waveless stream, The dipping paddle echoes far, And flashes in the moonlight gleam."
- 23. "Who can observe the careful ant, And not previde for future want."
- 24. "Nature with folded hands seemed there, Kneeling at her evening prayer."
- 25. "The woods
 Threw their cool shadows freshly to the west."
- 26. "The clear dew is on the blushing bosoms Of crimson roses, in a holy rest."
- 27. "Spring calls out each voice of the deep blue sky."
- 28. "Thou'rt journeying to thy spirit's home, Where the skies are ever clear."
- 29. "A summer breeze Parts the deep masses of the forest shade, And lets a sunbeam through."
- 30. "The pines grew red with morning."
- "Sin hath broke the world's sweet peace—unstrung Th' harmonious chords to which the angels sung."
- 82. "And epe, along the western skies, Spreads her intermingling dyes."
- 83. "The blooming morning oped her dewy eye."
- 84. "No marble marks thy couch of lowly sleep;
- 85. But living statues there are seen to weep."
- 36. "A distant torrent faintly roars."
- 87. "His gray iocks slowly waved in the wind, And glittered to the beam of night."
- 88. "Oft did the harvest to their sickle yield."
- 89. "Their furrow oft the stubborn glebe has broke."
- 40. "How jocund did they drive their team afield!"
- 41. "How bowed the woods beneath their sturdy stroke!"
- 42. "The breezy call of incense-breathing morn, The swallow, twittering from the straw-built shed, The cock's shill clarion, or the echoing horn, No more shall rouse them from their lowly bed."

DIAGRAMS.

REM —The office of an Element in a Sentence determines its position in the Diagram, according to the following

GENERAL RULES.



RULE 1.—The *Principal Elements* of a Sentence are placed uppermost, and on the same horizontal line;—as (1), (2), (3), Diagrams A and B.

RULE 2.—The Subject of a Sentence takes the first place;—as, (1) and (10), Diagrams A, and (1), (6), and (25), B.

RULE 3.—The *Predicate* of a Sentence is placed to the right of the Subject—attached;—as (2) and (11), A, and (2), (7), (11), and (26), B.

RULE 4.—The Object of a Sentence is placed to the right of the Predicate—attached;—as (3), A, and (3), (12), and (×), B.

Rule 5.—An Adjunct of a Sentence is placed beneath the Word which it limits or modifies—attached: as, (4), (5), (6), (7), (12), (13), (14), (17), (18), (23), A, and (4), (5), (8), (9), (17), (18), (19), (20), (23), (24), B.

RULE 6.—If the Adjunct is a *Phrase*, its Leader is attached to the Word which it limits; as, (15), (19), (25), A, and (15), (21), B.

RULE 7.—The Subsequent of a Phrase is placed to the right of its Leader—attached; as (20 and 21) to the right of (19)—(26) to the right of (25)—(16) of (15), A, and (22) of (21)—(16) of (15), B.

RULE 8.—If the Adjunct is a Sentence, it is attached by a line to the Word which the Adjunct Sentence limits; as, the Adjunct Sentence within the dotted line (6), is attached by the line from (2) to (9), A, and (6 to 19 inclusive) is attached to (1), B.

Rule 9.—A Logical Adjunct is placed beneath the Word which it describes, but not attached. [See "Roderic," page 41.]

RULE 10.—A Conjunction used to introduce a Sentence is placed above the Predicate of the Sentence which it introduces; as, (a), used to introduce the Sentence (1, 2, 3), A, and (9), introducing the Adjunct Sentence (10, 11), A, and (0), introducing the Sentence (1, 2, 3), B.

RULE 11.—A Conjunction used to connect Words, Phrases, or Sentences, similar in construction, is placed between the Elements connected; as, (10), connecting (11) to (7), B. [See also Diagram, page 43.]

RULE 12.—A Relative Pronoun or a Possessive Adjective used to introduce an Adjunct Sentence, is attached to the "antecedent" by a line; as (6) attached to (1) and (\times) attached to (22), B.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

REMARK.—Sentences differ { in their Forms and in their Uses.

- 1. Some Sentences assert the being, condition, or state of a person or of a thing—or an act which does not pass over to an Object.
 - 2. Others assert acts which terminate on Objects.
- Some Sentences assert but one fact—others assert more than one.
- 4. Some assert an Independent or a Principal Proposition—others a secondary or qualifying proposition. Hence, by their forms,

Sentences are distinguished as,

Intransitive, Transitive, or Mixed. Simple, Compound, or Complex.

By their uses, Sentences are distinguished as,

PRINCIPAL.....

Or

AUXILIARY

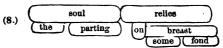
Substantive,
Adjective, or
Adverbial.

DEF. 43.—An Intransitive Sentence is a Sentence that asserts condition, being, or state—or an act which does not terminate on an Object.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. William sleeps.
- 2. Errors abound.
- 8. Mary is cheerful.
- (7.) William sleeps
 - 4. God is love.
 - 5. Mountains are elevated.

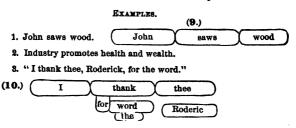
6. "On some fond breast the parting soul relies."



OBS.—An Intransitive Sentence contains one or more Subjects and Predicates,—but no Object.

Let each Pupil make an Intransitive Sentence.

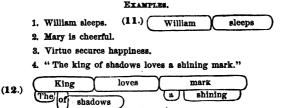
DEF. 44.—A **Transitive Sentence** is a Sentence that asserts an *act* which terminates on an Object.



OBS.—A Transitive Sentence has at least one Subject, one Predicate, and one Object.

Let each Pupil make a Transitive Sentence.

DEF. 45.—A Simple Sentence is a Sentence that asserts but one proposition.



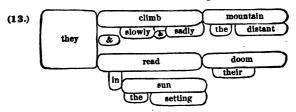
OBS.—A Simple Sentence can have but one Subject, one Predicate, and—when Transitive—one Object.

Let each Pupil make a Simple Sentence.

DEF. 46.—A Compound Sentence is a Sentence that asserts more than one proposition.

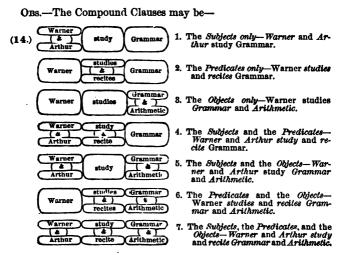
RYAMPI PE

- 1. Anna and Mary study Latin.
- 2. Temperance elevates and ennobles man.
- 3. Robert studies Grammar and Arithmetic.
- Slowly and sadly they climb the distant mountain, And read their doom in the setting sun."



OBS.—A Compound Sentence has more than one Subject or Predicate or Object.

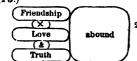
DEF. 46 (b).—In a Compound Sentence, the Principal Elements which are compounded are called **Clauses**.



OBS.—A Compound Sentence may have more than two clauses.

EXAMPLES.

1. Friendship, Love, and Truth abound. (15.)



Oxygen, Carbon, Hydrogen, and Nitrogen constitute the chief elements of organized matter.

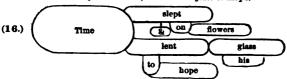
Let each Pupil make a Compound Sentence.

REM.—Sentences which have Compound Predicates, often have Objects applicable to only a part of them. Hence,

Def. 50.—A Compound Sentence, having one or more Transitive, and one or more Intransitive Predicates, is called a **Mixed Sentence**.

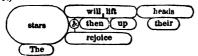
EXAMPLES.

1. "Time slept on flowers, and lent his glass to Hope."



REM.—"Slept" is Intransitive; "lent" is Transitive.

2. The stars will then lift up their heads and rejoice.



Rem.—" Will lift" is Transitive; "rejoice" is Intransitive.

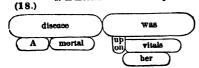
- I will never pant for public honors, Nor disturb my quiet with the affairs of state."
- 4. "Who can observe the careful ant, And not provide for future want?"

Let each Pupil make a Mixed Sentence.

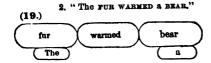
Def. 51.—A **Principal Sentence** asserts an independent or a principal proposition.

EXAMPLES.

1. A mortal disease was upon her vitals.

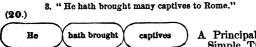


A Principal Sentence, Simple, Intransitive.



Rome

A Principal Sentence, Simple, Transitive.



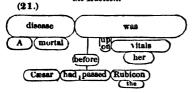
A Principal Sentence, Simple, Transitive.

Def. 52.—An Auxiliary Sentence is a Sentence that is used as an *Element* in the structure of another Sentence or of a phrase.

many

EXAMPLES.

1. "A mortal disease was upon her vitals before Casar had passed the Rubicon."



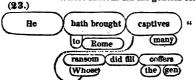
"Before Casar had passed the Rubicon" is an Auxiliary Sentence—Adverbial, because it modifies the verb "was."

2. "The fur that warms a monarch, warmed a bear."



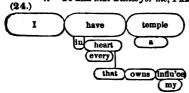
"That warms a monarch" is an Auxiliary Sentence
—Adjective, because it describes or limits the noun
"fur."

hath brought many captives to Rome,
 Whose ransom did the general coffers fill."



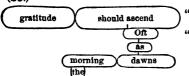
'Whose ransom did the general coffers fill," is an Auxiliary Sentence—Adjective, because it limits or designates the noun "captives."

- 4. "Sweet was the sound, when oft, at evening's close, Up yonder hill the village murmur ross."
- The bounding steed you pompously bestride, Shares with his lord the Pleasure and the PRIDE."
- 6. "I have a temple in every heart that owns my influence."
- 7. "To him that wishes for me, I AM always PRESENT."



"That owns my influence," is an Auxiliary Sentence
—Adjective, because it limits the noun "heart."

8. " Of as the morning dawns, should gratitude ascend." (25.)



- "Oft" is a Word Adjunct of SHOULD ASCEND.
 - "As the morning davons" is an Auxiliary Sentence— Adverbial, because it modifies the Adverb "oft" telling how oft.
- 9. "These lofty trees wave not less proudly,

 That their ancestors moulder beneath them."
- 10. "Soon as the woods on shore look dim, We'll cheerfully sing our parting HYMN."

DEF. 53.—A Principal Sentence and its Auxiliary Sentences constitute a **Complex Sentence**. [See Examples above.]

Let each Pupil make a Complex Sentence.

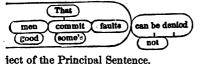
REM.—An Auxiliary Sentence is an Adjunct of a Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence going before in construction; or it is used as a substitute for a noun. Hence,

PRIN.—Auxiliary Sentences are distinguished as Substantive, Adjective, and Adverbial.

DEF. 54.—A **Substantive Sentence** is used as the *Subject* or the *Object* of a Sentence, or as the *Object* of a Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

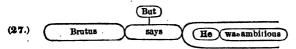
- (a) Subject Sentence.
- "That good men sometimes commit faults, cannot be denied."
 (26.)



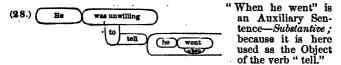
"That good men sometimes commit faults," is an Auxiliary Sentence—Substantive; because it is here used as the Sub-

(b) Object Sentence.

2. " But Brutus says he was ambitious."



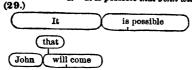
- "He was ambitious," is an Auxiliary Sentence—Substantive, because it is the Object of the Principal Sentence.
 - (c) Object of a Phrase.
 - 8. "He was unwilling to TELL when he went."



OBS.—A Sentence is often a Logical Adjunct of some word in a Principal Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

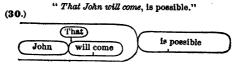
1. "It is possible that John will come."



REM.—" That John will come," is a Sentence used to tell what we mean by the word "it." Hence the Sentence is,

logically, an Adjunct of that Word—being merely an equivalent or explanatory expression. (See p. 34, Obs. 3.)

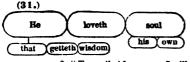
Rem. 2.—By omitting the word "It," the Auxiliary Sentence becomes grammatically the Subject in the Principal Sentence. Thus:



DEF. 55.—An Adjective Sentence is a Sentence that is used as an Adjunct of a Substantive.

EXAMPLES.

1. "He that getteth wisdom loveth his own soul."



"That getteth wisdom" is an Auxiliary Sentence, Adjective, because it is used as an Adjunct of the Pronoun "HE."

2. "THEM that honor me, I will honor."



"That honor me," is an Auxiliary Sentence, Adjective; because it is used to limit or describe the Pronoun "Them."

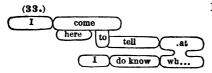
Let the Pupils analyze and place in diagram the following

ADDITIONAL ADJECTIVE SENTENCES.

 The bounding STEED you pompously bestride Shares with his lord the pleasure and the pride."

4. "That life is long which answers life's great end."

5. "The man of wealth and pride, Takes up a space that many poor supplied," 6. " Here I come to tell what I do know."



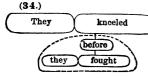
REM.—"What I do know" is the modified Object of "tell." "Which I do know" is an Auxiliary Sentence, Adjective; because it limits the Pronoun "that."

7. John is not willing to tell what he thinks.

DEF. 56.—An Adverbial Sentence is a Sentence that is used as an Adjunct of a Verb, a Participle, an Adjective, or another Adverb.

EXAMPLES.

1. " They kneeled before they fought.".



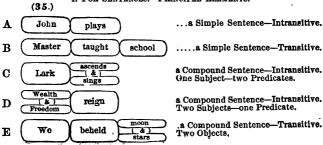
"Before they fought" tells when they kneeled. It is an Auxiliary Sentence—Adverbial.

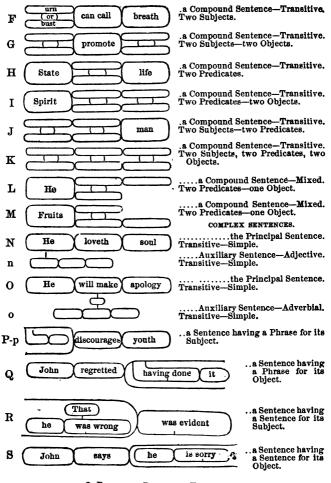
ADDITIONAL ADVERBIAL SENTENCES.

- 2. "Where Wealth and Freedom reign, contentment fails."
- "How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood, When fond Recollection presents them to view."
- 4. "These lofty trees wave not less proudly
 That their Ancestors moulder beneath them."

RECAPITULATION OF DIAGRAMS.

1. For Sentences.—Principal Elements.

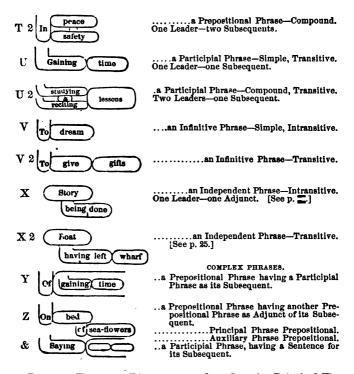




2. PHRASES.—PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.

Leader—Subsequent.
T of Java

.....a Prepositional Phrase—Simple. One Leader—one Subsequent.



REM.—1. The above Diagrams are adapted to the *Principal Elements* of a Sentence and of Phrases. In the exercises which follow, these Elements are variously modified by Adjunct Words, Phrases, and Sentences.

2. The whole Predicate—consisting of one, two, three, four, and sometimes five words, is placed in one Diagram—as exhibited on the following pages.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

41. Why are Sentences classified?......See Remark.

How are Sentences classified?.....See Principle.

_	BITO DIAM CHIMANITO THE L.
PAG	
	What is an Intransitive Sentence? See Def. 45.
	May Intransitive Sentences be either Simple or
	Compound ?See Obs.
	Make Intransitive SentencesSimple.
	Make " "
42.	What is a Transitive Sentence?
	Make Transitive Sentences Simple.
	Make " "
	What is a Simple Sentence?See Def. 47.
	Make Simple SentencesIntransitive.
	Make " "
	What is a Compound Sentence?
	Make Compound Sentences
	Make " "
43.	What are Clauses of a Sentence?See Def. 49.
	What Elements in a Sentence may be com-
	pounded?See Obs. (1–7).
	Make Sentences having CompoundSubjects.
	Make " "Predicates.
	Make " " Objects.
44.	How numerous may be the Clauses of a Sentence?
	What is a Mixed Sentence?
	Make Mixed Sentences—1st Clause Transitive.
	Make " " 2d Clause Transitive.
	What is a Principal Sentence?See Def. 51.
45.	What is an Auxiliary Sentence?
46.	What is a Complex Sentence?See Def. 53.
	Make Complex Sentences.
	What are the offices of Auxiliary Sentences?See Rem.
	By their offices, how are Auxiliary Sentences dis-
	tinguished?See Prin.
47.	What is a Substantive Sentence? See Def. 54.
	Make a Substantive Sentence that shall be
	the Subject of a Principal Sentence.
	Make a Substantive Sentence that shall be
	the Object of a Principal Sentence.
48	What is an Adjective Sentence?See Def. 55.
20.	Make Adjective Sentences.
40	What is an Adverbial Sentence?
w.	Make Adverbial Sentences.
	ATOMO TECHOLOUI DOUNCHOUS,

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

- REM.—1. In the following Exercises will be found Sentences of every grade—from the most simple to the most complex. The Teacher will find exercise for his judgment and discretion in assigning the Sentences to his Pupils (for analysis) according to their several capacities.
- 2. The Teacher will find it interesting and profitable to his Pupils, to assign to each at least one Sentence, to be placed in its appropriate Diagram—drawn on the blackboard ex tempore, or on paper by appointment at a previous recitation.

SIMPLE SENTENCES .- Intransitive.

1. "Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight."



A Simple Sentence—Intransitive...... See Def.

ANALYSIS.

REM.—Let the Pupils thus analyze and place in a similar Diagram the following

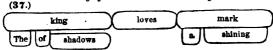
Additional Sentences.

- 2. The studious pupil seldom fails in his recitation.
- 3. The arrogant pedant was quickly banished from the company.
- 4. Such bright examples seldom fail, ultimately, to please.
- 5. That bright meteor flashed brilliantly athwart the heavens.
- 6. The young aspirant never succeeded in his effort.
- 7. Our brightest students are also foremost in their sports.

ET Let each Pupil make a Sentence adapted to the same Diagram.

SIMPLE SENTENCES .- Transitive.

1. "The king of shadows loves a shining mark." (37.)



A Simple Sentence—Transitive.....See Def. 44.

ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL The Subject The Predicate The Object	
ADJUNCT Of the Subject \{"The Of the Predicate,"	e"a Word. shadows," a Phrase.
ELEMENTS. Of the Treatcase, Of the Object ("A" Sh	'a Word. ining"a Word.

Elements.	Office.	Class.
The,	to tell what "king."	Adjunct of "king."
King,	to tell who "loves mark."	Subject of "loves."
Of shadows,	to tell what "king."	Adjunct of "king."
Loves,	to tell what the king does.	Predicate of "king."
Α,	to tell what " mark."	Adjunct of " mark."
Shining,	to tell what " mark."	Adjunct of " mark."
Mark,	to tell what the king "loves."	Object of "loves."

OTHER EXAMPLES APPLICABLE TO THE SAME DIAGRAM.

- 2. The science of geology illustrates many astonishing facts.
- 3. A love for study secures our intellectual improvement.
- 4. The habit of intemperance produces much lasting misery.
- 5. A desire for improvement should possess all our hearts.
- 6. The use of tobacco degrades many good men.
- 7. A house on fire presents a melancholy spectacle.
- 8. A man of refinement will adopt no disgusting habits.

Let each Pupil make a Sentence for the same Diagram.

Let the Pupil read only the Principal Elements of the above Sentences. Thus,

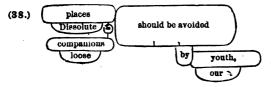
"Science illustrates facts."

"Love secures improvement,"

Then let him add the Adjunct to each word.

COMPOUND SENTENCES .- Intransitive.

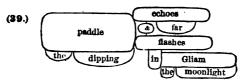
1. "Dissolute places and loose companions should be avoided by the young."



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	The 1st Subject "Places." The 2d Subject "Companions." The Predicate "Should be avoided."
Adjuncts.	Of the 1st Subject" Dissolute." Of the 2d Subject" Loose." Of the Predicate" By the young."

- 2. The Teachers and the Pupils have been complimented by the Committee.
- 3. His fortune and his talents should be devoted to that cause.
- 4. "The dipping paddle echoes far,
 And flashes in the moonlight gleam."



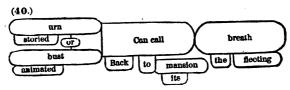
ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	The Subject The 1st Predicate The 2d Predicate	"Paddle." "Echoes." "Flashes."
Adjuncts. {	$\left\{egin{array}{ll} ext{Of the } ext{Subject} \dots & ext{``The''} \ ext{Of the } 1st \ Predicate ``Far'' \ ext{Of the } 2d \ Predicate & ext{``In the gleam} \end{array} ight.$	g" a Word. g" a Word a Word. e moonlight "—a Phrase.

5. Our youngest Pupil studies well, and recites with his usual precision.

COMPOUND SENTENCES .- Transitive.

 "Can storied urn or animated bust Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath?"



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	1st Subject 2d Subject The Predicate The Object	"Urn." "Bust. "Can call." "Breath."
Adjunct Elements.	Of the 1st Subject Of the 2d Subject Of the Predicate Of the Object	"Storied." "Animated." "Back." "To its mansion." "The." "Fleeting."

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES, adapted to the same Diagram.

- 2. What boy or what girl can not place the next Sentence in this Diagram?
- 3. Never, since the Creation, has the eye or the heart hailed such beautiful forms.
- The mother and the daughter quickly drove the daring burglar from the house.

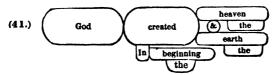
Let the Pupils make other Sentences for the same Diagram.

ADDITIONAL SENTENCES,

In which the PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS are similar.

- 5. "Hill and valley echo back their songs."
- 6. "Then Strife and Faction rule the day."
- 7. " And Pride and Avarice throng the way."
- 8. "Loose Revelry and Riot bold,
 - In freighted streets their orgies hold."
- "Illuminated reason and regulated liberty shall once more exhibit man in the image of his Maker."
- 10. "The hunter's trail and the dark encampments startled the wild beasts from their lairs."

1. "In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth."



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	The Subject The Predicate The Objects	." God." ." Created." [" Heaven" and [" Earth."
Adjunct Elements.	Of the Subject	the beginning." ie."

CONSTRUCTION.

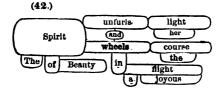
Elements.	Office.	Class.
"In the begin- ning,"	} tells when God "created."	Adjunct of "created."
"God,"	{ tells who "created heaven and earth."	Subject of "created."
" Created,"	tells what "God" did.	Predicate of "God."
"The,"	tells what "heaven."	Adjunct of "heaven."
" Heaven,"	tells what "God created."	Object of "created."
"And,"	joins "heaven and earth."	Conjunction.
. "The,"	tells what " earth."	Adjunct of "earth."
"Earth,"	tells what "God created."	Object of "created."

Additional Sentences, for the same Diagram.

- 2. William loves his study and his play with equal attachment.
- 8. God, in the creation, has displayed his wisdom and his power.
- 4. Men gather the tares and the wheat with equal care.
- 5. We, at all times, seek our honor and our happiness.
- 6. Students require of the teacher much instruction and some patience.
- 7. He educated his daughter and his son at great expense.

Let the Pupils make other Sentences for the same Diagram.

 The spirit of beauty unfurls her light, And wheels her course in a joyous flight."



ANALYSIS.

	The Subject	." Spirit"
PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	The Subject The Predicates	\(\text{" Unfurls" [and]} \)
	The Objects	
Adjuncts.	Of the Subject "The" "Of beauty".	a Word. a Phrase.
	Of the 1st Predicate	
	Of the 2d Predicate" In a joyous	flight"a Phrase.
	Of the 1st Object "Her"	a Word.
	Of the 2d Object" Her"	a Word.

Additional Sentences, for the same Diagram.

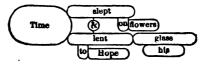
- The teacher of grammar examined her class, and presented the medal to the best scholar.
- The queen of night unveiled her face, And silvered the heavens with her mild beams.
- The king of day dispelled those beams,
 And lighted the earth with his golden rays.
 - Let each Pupil make a Sentence for the same Diagram.

Additional Sentences-The Adjuncts vary.

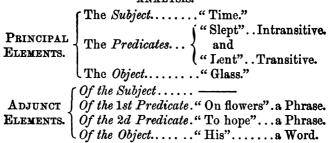
- With louder plaints the mother spake her woes, And blessed the cot where every pleasure rose."
- 6. "Slowly and sadly they climb the distant mountain, and read their doom in the setting sun."
- "An aversion to effort paralyzes every noble desire, and defeats every attempt at advancement."
- 8. " Secrecy keeps the key of prudence, and unlocks the sanctuary of wisdom."
- "Two hundred years have changed the character of a great continent, and blotted forever from its face a whole peculiar people."

COMPOUND SENTENCES-Mixed.

1. " Time slept on flowers and lent his glass to hope."



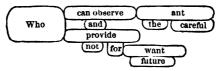
ANALYSIS.



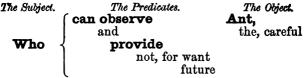
Additional Sentences-adapted to the same Diagram.

- 2. We sigh for change, and spend our lives for naught.
- 3. William goes to school, and pursues his study with zeal.
- 4. James stays at home, and spends his time at play.
- 5. We shall pass from earth, and yield our homes to others.6. Fruits ripen in Autumn, and yield us rich repasts.

"Who can observe the careful ant And not provide for future want?"



ANOTHER METHOD OF ANALYSIS.

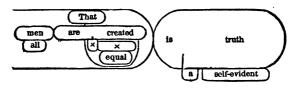


Let each Pupil make a Sentence adapted to the same Diagrams.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

The Auxiliary Sentence-Substantive.

1. " That all men are created equal, is a self-evident truth."



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	The Subject The Predicate	"That all men are created equal" {"Is "Truth"	a Sentence. a Verb and a Noun.
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	Of the Subject. Of the Predicat		A." Self-evident."

Analysis of the Auxiliary Sentence.

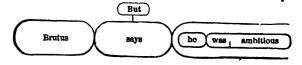
PRINCIPAL SELEMENTS.	The Subject The Predicate	" Men." " Are created."
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	Of the Predicate" All" Of the Subject[with]	a Word.

Additional Sentences, adapted to the same Diagram.

- 2. That those boys were capable of such deception, was not fully believed.
- 3. That our pupils are addicted to such habits, is a lamentable truth.
- 4. That long lessons are agreeable to this class, is not very obvious.
- 5. That our teacher is master of his profession, is always fully acknowledged.
- 6. That such tasks should be imposed on small scholars, is an unusual thing.

Let each Pupil make a Sentence adapted to the same Diagram.

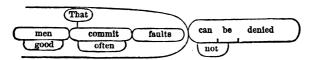
2. " But Brutus says he was ambitious."



ANALYSIS.

Let each Pupil make and analyze a Sentence adapted to the same Diagram.

1. "That good men often commit faults, can not be denied."



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	The Subject The Predicate	5 "That good men of ten commit faults". Can not be denied.	of- } a Sentence.
ADJUNCTS.	Of the Subject Of the Predicate.	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	" Not any."" Not."

ADDITIONAL COMPLEX SENTENCES. Sentence Subjects.

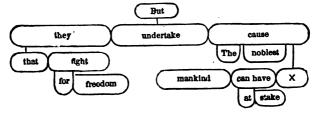
- 2. "I can not, has never accomplished any thing."
- 2. "I will try, has done wonders."
- 4. "That we may be in error is quite possible."

Sentence Objects.

- 5. "' Will you walk into my parlor?' said a spider to a fly."
- 6. "He knew not that the chieftain lav unconscious of his son."
- 7. "Then Agrippa said unto Paul, 'Almost thou persuadest me to be a Christian.'"
- 8. "A celebrated writer says, 'Take care of the minutes, and the hours will take care of themselves."

The Auxiliary Sentences-Adjective.

1. "But they that fight for freedom undertake
The noblest cause mankind can have at stake,"



A COMPLEX SENTENCE.

Analysis of the Principal Sentence.

	•		
PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	The Subject The Predicate The Object	Cause	J
ADJUNCT	Of the Subject Of the Predicate	for freedom"	a Sentence.
ELEMENTS.	(" The" " Noblest"	.a. Word.
	Of the Object.	"[That] man- kind can have at stake"	a Sentence.

Analysis of the first Auxiliary Sentence.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	The Subject The Predicate	." That." ." Fight."
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	Of the Subject For freedom".	.a Phrase.

Analysis of the second Auxiliary Sentence.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	The Subject The Predicate The Object	"Mankind." "Can have." [That] understood.
ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.	Of the Subject Of the Predicate Of the Object	"At stake"a Phrase.

Thus analyze and place in the same Diagram the following

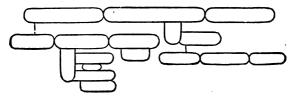
ADDITIONAL SENTENCES.

- And students who love to study merit the highest honors which teachers can give them.
- And actions which were founded in justice, produced the good results which we had in view.
- 4. "But such as seek for truth shall find the richest boon which God to man can give."
- 5. "And I who bleed for thee, Shall claim the brightest gift Which thou canst yield to me."
- But he who wins at last, Shall love the very toils Which fortune round him cast.

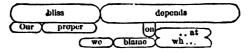
Let each Pupil make a Sentence adapted to the same Diagram.

"He that by usury and unjust gain increaseth his substance, shall gather it for him that will pity the poor."

Let the Pupil place this Sentence in the subjoined Diagram.



" Our proper bliss depends on what we blame."

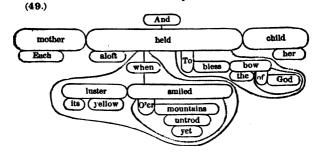


A COMPLEX SENTENCE.—THE AUXILIARY QUALIFIES A PHRASE.

Elements.	Offices.
" Our,"	
"Proper,"	
"Bliss,"	Subject of "depends."
"Depends,"	
	Adjunct of "depends."
"What," { [That][Which]	Object of " blame."
"We,"	Subject of " blame."
"Blame"	

AUXILIARY SENTENCES-ADVERBIAL.

 "And when its yellow luster smiled O'er mountains yet untrod, Each mother held aloft her child, To bless the bow of God."



Analysis of the Principal Sentence.

FIRST MODEL.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.	The $Subject \dots$ "Mother" \longrightarrow Simple The $Predicate \dots$ "Held" \longrightarrow Transitive.	•
Adjunct Elements.	$Of \ the \ Subject``Each"a \ Word.$ $Of \ the \ Predicate. \begin{cases} \text{"Aloft"}a \ Word. \\ \text{"When its yellow} \\ \text{luster smiled o'er} \\ \text{mountains} \ \text{yet} \\ \text{untrod"} \end{cases} a \ Sentence \\ \text{(Adverbial untrod"} \\ \text{"To bless the bow} \\ \text{of God"} \end{cases} a \ Phrase.$).
	Of the Object" Her" a Word.	

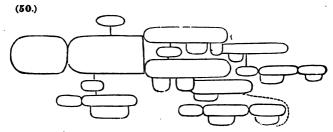
SECOND MODEL.			
Elements.	Offices.		
" And"	Introduces the Principal Sentence,		
"When its yellow luster smiled O'er mountains yet untrod"	Adjunct of "held."		
" Mother"			

" Held" Predicate of " mother." " Aloft" Adjunct of " held." " Her" Adjunct of " child." " Child" Object of " held." " To bless the bow of God" Adjunct of " held."		
Analysis of the Auxiliary Sentence.		
" When" Introduces the Auxiliary Sentence. " Its" Adjunct of " luster." " Yellow" Adjunct of " luster." " Luster" Subject of " smiled." " Smiled" Predicate of " luster." " O'er mountains yet untrod" Adjunct of " smiled."		
Analysis of the Adjunct Phrases.		
" To"Introduces the Phrase—connects "bless" with "held." " Bless"Object of "to." " The"Adjunct of "bow." " Bow"Object of "bless." " Of God"Adjunct of "bow."		
" Of"Introduces the <i>Phrase</i> —connects " God" with " bow." " God"Object of " of."		
"O'er"Introduces the Phrase—connects "mountains" with "smiled."		
" Mountains" Object of "o'er." " Yet" Adjunct of "untrod." " Untrod" Adjunct of "mountains."		
Thus analyze the following Additional Examples.		
Wherefore is there a price in the hand of a fool to get wisdom, seeing he hath no heart to it."		
 Yet do I feel my soul recoil within me, As I contemplate the dim gulf of death." 		
4. "If we have whispered truth, Whisper no longer."		
5. "Speak as the tempest does, Sterner and stronger."		
6. "The hoary head is a crown of glory, if it be found in the way of righteousness."		

7. "Their advancement in life and in education was such that each ought to have been a gentleman."

EXAMPLES

Of Substantive, Adjective, and Adversial Sentences.



Let the Pupil name the Sentence below adapted to this Diagram, and place it in an exact copy, written on the blackboard.

- "If you would know the deeds of him who chews, Enter the house of God, and see the pews."
- 2. "The man that dares traduce because he can With safety to himself, is not a man."
- And, as I passed by, I heard the complaints of the laborers who had reaped down his fields, and the cries of the poor whose covering he had taken away."
- 4. "The time must come when all will have been said that can be said to exalt the character of any individual of our race."
- 5. "Mysterious are his ways, whose power Brings forth that unexpected hour, When minds that never met before, Shall meet, unite, and part no more."
- "My heart is awed within me when I think Of the great miracle that still goes on In silence round me,"
- 7. "When we consider carefully what appeals to our minds, and exercise upon it our own reason—taking into respectful consideration what others say upon it—and then come to a conclusion of our own, we act as intelligent beings."
- Before we passionately desire what another enjoys, we should examine into the happiness of its possessor."
- 9. "With what loud applause didst thou beat heaven with blessing Bolingbroke, before he was what thou wouldst have him be?"

Teachers and Pupils will find additional Sentences for Exercises in Analysis in the APPENDIX.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

REMARK 1.—In Part I. we have considered—

- 1. The Structure of Sentences and of Phrases;
- 2. The *Elements* which compose a Sentence or a Phrase;
- 3. The Classification of Sentences and of Phrases;
- 4. The Analysis of Sentences—Proximate and Ultimate.

REM. 2.—In our progress through PART I. we have seen—

- That the Proximate Analysis of a Sentence consists in re solving it into its immediate Constituent Elements, and that these may be Words, Phrases, or Auxiliary Sentences.
- That the Ultimate Analysis of a Sentence consists in reducing its Proximate Elements to the Words which compose them.

REM. 3.—We have next to consider the history of Words—considered as ultimate Elements of Sentences—including,

- 1. Their Formation,
- 3. Their Modification,
- 2. Their Classification,
- 4. Their Relation, and
 - 5. Their Collocation.

PRINCIPLE.—'The Science of Language embraces......

Gorthoepy,
Orthography,*
Etymology,
Syntax, and
Prosody.

DEF. 57.—Orthoepy treats of the Sounds of letters and of Words.

^{*} It accords best with our plan, first to discuss the *Classes*, the *Modifications*, and the *Relations* of Words, before analyzing the Words and examining their Elements. Hence Orthography is placed in the Appendix.

DEF. 58.—Orthography treats of the Structure and Form of Words.

Def. 59.—Etymology treats of the Classification and Modification of Words.

Def. 60.—Syntax treats of the Relation and mutual Dependence of Words.

Def. 61.—**Prosody** treats of the *Arrangement* and *Utterance* of Words.

CLASSIFICATION AND MODIFICATION OF WORDS.

Words are distinguished...... $\begin{cases} by their Forms and \\ by their Uses. \end{cases}$

1. The Forms of Words.

PRIN.—By their forms, Words are distinguished as,

Radical or Derivative, Simple or Compound.

DEF. 62.—A Radical Word is a Word that does not derive its original from another Word in the same language.

 ${\bf Examples.-Sun-cloud-rose-friend-chief-swift-just-sell.}$

DEF. 63.—A **Derivative Word** is a Word derived from a Radical, by prefixing or adding one or more letters to it.

 $\label{eq:constraint} \begin{aligned} \textbf{Examples}. &- \textbf{Sunny-swiftly-cloudy-sinful-selling-unconscious-rose} \\ &- \textbf{friendly-justify-chieftain.} \end{aligned}$

OBS.—A Word that is Radical in the English language, may be a Derivative in the language from which it comes.

 ${\bf Examples}. - Conscience - optics - algebra - philosophy - signify.$

DEF. 64.—A **Simple Word** is a Word that is used separately from another Word.

EXAMPLES.—Have—brightly—freedom—parlor—music—study—times—patience—loved—cottage—peace—cold.

DEF. 65.—A Compound Word is a Word that is made of two or more Words combined.

EXAMPLES.—Star-light—household-words—rose-bud--steam-engine—pencil-case—nevertheless—moonbeam--rail-road.

Obs.—The parts of a Compound Word are printed as one Word without space between them, or they are joined by a short horizontal line (-) called a hyphen.

Examples (without the hyphen).—Overlay—underwrite—withstand—somotimes—nevertheless.

" (with the hyphen).—Hour-glass—warm-hearted—ink-stand—penholder.

PRIN.—The Parts of a Compound the Basis and Word are...... the Adjunct.

DEF. 66.—The **Basis** of a Compound Word is the Principal Element in the Word.

EXAMPLES.—Race-horse-horse-race—hour-glass-sergeant-at-arms-father-in-law-aid-de-camp.

DEF. 67.—The **Adjunct** of a Compound Word is the part that *limits* or *modifies* the Basis.

Examples.—Race-horse-horse-race—hour-glass — jack-o'-lantern — father-inlaw—aid-de-camp.

OBS. 1.—The Adjunct of a Word may be one Word or a Phrase.

Examples.-- One Word.-- Man- stealer- race- horse-- book- maker.

A Phrase.—Father-in-law-aid-de-camp-will-o'-the-wisp.

Obs. 2.—Derivative and Compound Words have this distinction, viz.:

Compound Words consist of two or more complete Words; whereas, Derivative Words consist of one Word with Letters or Particles prefixed or attached.

These Particles are called. $\begin{cal} \begin{cal} \b$

DEF. 68.—A **Prefix** is one or more letters placed before a Radical, to form a Derivative Word.

 $\begin{array}{l} {\tt Examples.-Reform-degrade-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-elect-absolve-overlook-undertake-involve-overlook-undertake-ove$

DEF. 69.—A Suffix is one or more letters added to a Word, to make it Derivative.

EXAMPLES.—Forming—graded—homely—goodness.

REM.—Words may have more than one Prefix or Suffix. Hence,

EXAMPLES OF SIMPLE

Prefixes.		Suffixes.	
Ab solve,	Com pose,	Form ing,	Tak en,
Dis solve,	De pose,	Form ation,	Verb ose,
Re solve,	Re pose,	Danger ous,	Rude ly,
De form,	Be take,	Coin age,	Hope ful,
In form,	Over take.	Good ness,	Con sular,
Uni form.	Under take.	Bigot ry,	Lamb kin.

COMPOUND

Prefixes.	Suffixes.
Re con struct,	Lone li ness,
Mis con ceive,	Might i ly,
In co herent,	Fear less ness,
Un pre tending,	Right ful ly,
Ir re vocable,	Form a tion,
Im per forated.	Modi fi cation.

Prefixes and Suffixes.

Re duc ing,	Ab negat ion,
Dis solv ed,	Con fine ment,
Con form able,	Sub stan tial,
Re con cil i a tion,	Un con dition ally.
Tran sub stan ti a tion,	Non con form ist,
In dis sol u ble,	Con form abil ity.

Def. 70.—A Separable Radical constitutes a perfect Word, without its Prefixes or Suffixes.

EXAMPLES.

Radical.	Derivative.	Radical.	Derivative.
	Con form,		(Ad join,
	De form,		Ad join, Con join,
Form	In form,	Join ≺	Dis join,
	Per form,		En join,
	Re form.		Dis join, En join, Re join.

Def. 71.—An **Inseparable Radical** is not used as a distinct Word in the language, without the aid of its Prefixes or Suffixes.

EXAMPLES.

Radical.	Derivative.	Radical.	Derivative.
	Col lect,		(A. vert,
	E lect,		Ad vert,
	Se lect,		Con vert,
Lect	De lect able,	Vert ≺	Di vert,
	Re col lect,		E vert ion,
	Re col lect ion,		In vers ion,
	Un se lect ed.		Uni vers al.

Obs.—The office of Prefixes is to modify the signification of the Radical—that of Suffixes, to determine the "part of speech."

NOTE.—For an extended list of Prefixes and Suffixes, see "Derivation of Words" in Sanders' Analysis of Words.

EXERCISES.

Let the Pupil tell which of the following Words are Simple, which are Compound, which are Primitive, and which are Derivative.

Ardent,	Ardently,	Jack-o'-lantern,
Beauty,	Beautiful,	World-renowned,
Courage,	Courageous,	Race-horse,
Duty,	Dutiful,	Horse-race,
Eager,	Eagerness,	Life-giving,
Fair,	Unfairness,	Fair-haired youth,
Good,	Goodly,	Conformable.

[&]quot;How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood, When fond Recollection presents them to view,—
The orchard, the meadow, the deep-tangled wildwood, And every loved spot that my infancy knew!"

Let the Pupil analyze the Derivative and the Compound Words according to the following

MODEL.
1. "Conformable" a Derivative Word.
ANALYSIS. The <i>Prefix</i>
2. "Race-horse" a Compound Word.
ANALYSIS. The <i>Basis</i>
3. "Horse-race" a Compound Word.
ANALYSIS. The Basis
QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.
67. What are the subjects discussed in Part II.? See Remark. What is Proximate Analysis of Sentences? See Rem. 2. What is Ultimate Analysis of Sentences? " The Science of Language embraces what parts? . See Prin. What is Orthoepy? See Def. 57. 68. What is Orthography? See Def. 58. What is Eltymology? See Def. 59. What is Syntax? See Def. 60. What is Prosody? See Def. 61. Words are distinguished by what different bases? See Prin.
By their forms, how are Words distinguished? " What is a Radical Word? Give Examples See Def. 62. What is a Derivative Word? Give Examples See Def. 63. What is a Simple Word? Give Examples See Def. 64. 69. What is a Compound Word? Give Examples See Def. 65. What are the different Parts of a Compound Word? See Prin. What is the Basis of a Compound Word? See Def. 66.

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What is the Adjunct of a Compound Word? See Def. 67.
The Adjunct Element of a Compound Word may
consist of what?

69. How are Compound distinguished from Derivative Words?.....See Obs. 2. Make a Compound Word;—a Derivative Word. What distinct Elements may be in a Derivative Word? What is a Prefix? Give Examples See Def. 68. 70. What is a Suffix? Give Examples See Def. 69.

How many sorts of Prefixes? Of Suffixes? See Prin. What distinctions of Radicals in Derivative Words? Prin. What is a Separable Radical? Give Examples. See Def. 70.

71. What is an Inseparable Radical? Give Examples. Def. 71.

II. THE USES OF WORDS.

PRIN.—By their uses, Words are distinguished as

 Nouns,
 Pronouns,
 Verbs,
 Adjectives,
 Adverbs.

Principal Elements in Sentences.

Adjunct Elements. 6. Prepositions, 6. Prepositions,
7. Conjunctions,
8. Exclamations,

9. Words of Euphon

OBS.—These nine classes of words are called "the Parts of Speech;" for in these classes are included all the words of the English language.

DEF. 72.—A Noun is a Word used as the Name of a being, of a place, or of a thing.

EXAMPLES.—". The king of shadows loves a shining mark."

OBS. 1.-Nouns are names of

- 1. Material things, as—Man—book—house—apples.
- 2. Ideas or things not material, as-Mind-hope-desire-aversion -remorse-joy-imagination-veracity.

OBS. 2.—Let the Pupil be careful here to distinguish a name from

the thing named; and remember that the name is the Noun. Thus, a house is a thing—the name of that thing is a Noun.

Obs. 3.—The term Substantive is used in grammar to indicate a Noun, a Pronoun, or a Phrase or a Sentence having the Syntax of a Noun.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

REM.—Some Nouns are appropriated to individual persons or places, or to things personified; others are general in their application, being used to designate classes or sorts. Hence,

PRIN.—Nouns are distinguished as { Proper and Common.

DEF. 73.—A **Proper Noun** is a name appropriated to an individual person or place, or to a thing personified.

EXAMPLES.—William—Boston—Hudson—Oregon.

"And old Experience learns too late
That all is vanity below."

DEF. 74.—A Common Noun is a name used to designate one or more of a class or sort of beings or things.

EXAMPLES.—Man—book—conscience—feeling—landscape.

"Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight."

REM.—Some Common Nouns are the names of qualities.

DEF. 75.—An Abstract Noun is the name of a quality of a thing, and not of the substance.

EXAMPLES.—Goodness—meekness—impracticability.

DEF. 76.—A Collective Noun is a Noun that in its Singular form indicates more than one.

Examples.—Committee—assembly—army—tribe—clan—multitude.
"The village master taught his little school."

DEF. 77.—A **Verbal Noun** is a Noun derived from a Verb; being in *form* a Participle—in *office*, a Substantive.

EXAMPLES.—Beginning—gatherings—spelling—joining.

"In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth."

Obs. 1.—The Classification of Nouns as Common and Proper, is one rather of curiosity than of practical utility in the Science of Language. In writing or printing such Nouns we begin with a Capital Letter.

OBS. 2.—A Word is known to be a Noun.

1st. By its being a Name.

2d. By its performing a Substantive office.

OBS. 3.—A Substantive may be,

- 1. The Subject of a Sentence.
- 2. The Object of a Sentence or of a Phrase.
- 3. A Name or an Equivalent, independent in construction.

But,

OBS. 4.—A Substantive office may be performed by Words, by Phrases, and by Sentences.

EXAMPLES.

- By Words, Nouns.—1. Paul the Apostle wrote an Epistle to Timothy.
 PRONOUNS.—2. Was it you that introduced me to him?
- By Phrases.—3. "Taking a madman's sword, to prevent his doing mischief, can not be regarded as robbing him."
- By Sentences.—4. "That all men are created equal, is a self-evident truth."
 "But Brutus says, he was ambitious."

Hence.

Obs. 5.—A Noun is generally Substantive. But a Word commonly used as a Noun may become,

- 1. An Adjective ; as, An iron fence-gold leaf.
- 2. An Adverb; as, Willie is coming home.
- 8. A Verb; as, "But if you mouth it."

Obs. 6.—A Substantive office is sometimes performed by words commonly used—

- (a.) As Adjectives .- 1. "The good alone are great."
 - "Nor grudge I thee the much the Grecians give, Nor, murm'ring, take the little I receive."—Dryden.
- (b.) As Adverbs.—3. "'Tis Heaven itself that points out an hereafter."—Addison.
- (c.) As Conjunctions. 4. "Your if is the only peace-maker; much virtue is in if."—Shakspeare.
- (d.) As an Exclamation.—5. "With hark! and whoop! and wild halloo!"—Scott.

Modification of Nouns.

REM.—Some Nouns and Pronouns, by their form, by their position in a Sentence, or by their obvious uses, indicate—

- 1. The sex-as male or female, or neither.
- 2. The speaker, the being addressed, or the being or thing spoken of.
- 3. The number of beings or things—as one or more.
 - 4. The condition, with regard to other Words in the Sentence, as,
 - (1.) The Subject of a Sentence.
 - (2.) The Object of a Sentence or of a Phrase.
 - (3.) Independent in construction. Hence,

Most Nouns are modified by Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

GENDER.

DEF. 78.—Gender is the modification of such Nouns and Pronouns as, by their form, distinguish the sex.

DEF. 79.—Nouns and Pronouns that indicate *Males* are of the **Masculine Gender**.

EXAMPLES.-Man-lion-ox-David-John-Cornelius.

DEF. 80.—Nouns and Pronouns indicating Females are of the Feminine Gender.

EXAMPLES.—Woman-lioness-cow-Dollie-Jane-Cornelia.

DEF. 81.—Nouns and Pronouns that indicate neither Males nor Females, are said to be of the Neuter Gender.

Examples.—Book—pen—table—star—planet. .

Obs. 1.—The term Neuter-Gender applies only to such Nouns and Pronouns as do not denote a male or a female.

Obs. 2.—Young animals and infants are often represented by Pronouns of the Neuter Gender; as, "Mary's kitten is very playful—it is quite a pet with the whole family."

"Calm as an infant as it sweetly sleeps."

PRIN.—The Gender of Nouns is determined—

1. By the termination; as,

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Actor,	Actress.	Jew,	Jewess.
Administrator,	Administratrix.	Lion,	Lioness.
Author,	Authoress.	Patron,	Patroness.
Benefactor,	Benefactress.	Prince,	Princess.
Emperor,	Empress.	Protector,	Protectress.
Executor,	Executrix.	Shepherd,	Shepherdess.
Elector,	Electress.	Songster,	Songstress.
Governor,	Governess.	Tiger,	Tigress.
Heir,	Heiress.	Tutor,	Tutoress.
Host,	Hostess.	Tailor,	Tailoress.
Hero,	Heroine.	Widower,	Widow

2. By different Words; as,

•	•	-	
Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Bachelor,	Maid.	Husband,	Wife.
Beau,	Belle.	King,	Queen.
Boy,	Girl.	Lad,	Lass.
Brother,	Sister.	Lord,	Lady.
Drake,	Duck.	Man,	Woman.
Father,	Mother.	Master,	Mistress.
Friar,	Nun.	Nephew,	Niece.

3. By prefixing or affixing other Words; as,

Masc.	Fem.
Man-servant,	Maid-servant,
He-goat,	She-goat,
Cock-sparrow,	Hen-sparrow,
Landlord,	Landlady,
Gentleman.	Gentlewoman.

Obs. 3.—Whenever Words are used which include both Males and Females, without having a direct reference to the sex, the Word appropriated to males is commonly employed.

EXAMPLES.-1. "The proper study of mankind is man."

There is no flesh in man's obdurate heart— It does not feel for man."

But to this rule there are exceptions; as, geese, ducks.

Obs. 4.—Things personified are often represented by Pronouns of the Masculine or of the Feminine Gender.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Then Fancy her magical pinions spread wide."

- 2. "Time slept on flowers, and lent his glass to Hope.
- '3. "For the Angel of Death spread his wings on the blast, And breathed in the face of the foe as he pass'd."

Obs. 5.—Many Nouns which denote the office or condition of persons, and some others, are not distinguished by Gender; and hence they have no modification of Gender. The persons, indicated by such nouns, are, physiologically, males or females; but the words, having no form to indicate the sex, have, therefore, no modification of gender. The term "Common Gender," given to such words by some authors, is about as appropriate as is the term "Common Number" would be to the word sheep.

EXAMPLES.—Parent—cousin—friend—neighbor—teacher.

Obs. 6.—Nouns not modified by Gender may be represented by Pronouns of the Masculine or of the Feminine form; and, when thus represented, the Gender of the Noun may follow that of the Pronoun.

Examples.-1. My cousin has invited me to ride with him.

2. "She was a kind neighbor—an affectionate parent."

Note.—In the English language less importance is attached to the Gender of Nouns than in the Latin, Greek, and other languages—the relation of Words in Sentences depending more upon position and less upon the terminations. Hence, in parsing Nouns and Pronouns, the Gender need not be mentioned, unless they are obviously Masculine or Feminine.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

73. By their uses, how are words distinguished? See Prin.

What Classes of Words are used as Principal Elements in Sentences? See Prin.

What Classes are used as Adjunct Elements? ... See Prin.

What Classes are used as Attendant Elements? ... See Prin.

How many "Parts of Speech" in the English Language? ... See Obs. 1.

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	What is a Noun? Give Examples See	Def.	72.
	Are all Nouns names of material things?See	Obs.	1.
	What is the difference between Nouns and things? See		
74.	How do we use the word Substantive?See		
	How are Nouns classified?See		
	What is a Proper Noun? Give ExamplesSee		
	What is a Common Noun? Give ExamplesSee		
*	What Common Nouns are called Abstract Nouns?. See		
	" " Collective Nouns?. See		
	" " Verbal Nouns?. See		
75 .	How may we know that a word is a Noun?See		
	What offices do Substantives fill?See		
	What, besides Words, perform Substantive offices?. See	Obs.	4.
	Words commonly used as Nouns, may perform		
	what other offices?See	Obs.	5.
••	Give Examples of Nouns becoming Adjectives,		
	Adverbs, Verbs.		
76.	What different Modifications of Nouns?See		
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	What Nouns are of the Masculine Gender?See	Def.	79.
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•	To what Nouns, then, does the term Neuter Gender	٠.	_
	apply?See	Obs.	1.
	What Names of Persons are represented by Neuter	۰.	_
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•	form?See	ODS.	. J.
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MO			
78.	" "Different words. " " the use of Prefixes and Suffixes.		
	- une use of Frenxes and Sumxes.		

Person.

REM.—All Nouns are the Names of

- 1. The persons speaking.
- 2. The persons or things addressed. Or,
- 3. The persons or things spoken of. Hence,

DEF. 82.—Person is that modification of Nouns and Pronouns which distinguishes the Speaker from the Person or thing spoken to or spoken of.

PRIN.—Nouns and Pronouns are of the First Person, Second Person, or Third Person.

DEF. 83.—The name of the speaker or writer is of the First Person.

Example.—" I, John, saw these things."

DEF. 84.—The name of a person or thing addressed, is of the **Second Person**.

Example.—"Father, thy hand hath reared these venerable columns."

DEF. 85.—The name of the person or thing spoken of, is of the **Third Person**.

EXAMPLE.—"The hero hath departed."

NUMBER.

REM.—Nouns by their form denote individuality or plurality. Hence,

DEF. 86.—Number is that modification of certain Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Verbs, whose forms distinguish unity from plurality.

PRIN.—Nouns are distinguished as { Singular or Plural.

DEF. 87.—Nouns denoting but one person or thing, are of the Singular Number.

Examples.—Man-boy-pen-book-mouse-ox.

DEF. 88.—Nouns denoting more than one, are of the Plural Number.

EXAMPLES.-Men-boys-pens-books-mice-oxen.

Obs. 1.—The *Number* of a Noun is usually determined by its *form*. The Plural of most Nouns differs from the Singular by having an additional s.

EXAMPLES. 00
Singular.—Act, Egg, Book, Mastiff, Pen, Chair,
Ptural.—Acts, Eggs, Books, Mastiffs, Pens, Chairs.

OBS. 2.—But a Noun whose Singular form ends in s, ss, sh, x, ch (soft), and some Nouns in o and y, form the Plural by the addition of es.

Singular.—Gas, Lynx, Church, Lash, Glass, Hero,
Plural.—Gases, Lynxes, Churches, Lashes, Glasses, Heroes.

Obs. 3.—Y final, after a Consonant, is changed into ie (the original orthography), and s is added.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.—Lady, Folly, Quality, City.
Old form.—Ladie, Follie, Qualitie, Citie.
Plural.—Ladies, Follies, Qualities, Cities.

Exception.—But Proper Nouns in y commonly form the Plurals by adding s to the y; as, the two Livys—the Tullys.

Obs. 4.—In the following Nouns, f final is changed into v, and the usual termination for the plural is added:

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Beef.	Beeves.	Self,	Selves.
Calf.	Calves.	Shelf,	Shelves.
Elf.	Elves.	Sheaf,	Sheaves.
Half.	Halves.	Thief.	Thieves.
Leaf.	Leaves.	Wolf	Wolves.
Loaf.	Loaves.	Yourself.	Yourselves.

Other Nouns in f form their Plurals regularly.

OBS. 5.—But most Nouns ending in fe are changed into ves.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.—Knife, Life, Wife, Plural.—Knives, Lives, Wives.

Obs. 6.—Many Nouns form their Plurals irregularly.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.—Man, Child, Foot, Ox, Monse, Plural —Men, Children, Feet, Oxen, Mice.

OBS. 7.—In most Compound Words, the basis only is varied to form the Plural, if its Adjunct Word precedes, or its Adjunct Phrase follows.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.—Fellow-servant, Ink-stand, Race-horse, Camp-meeting, Flural.—Fellow-servants, Ink-stands, Race-horses, Camp-meetings.

Singular.—Father-in-law, Plural.—Fathers-in-law, Aid-de-camp, Aides-de-camp.

Obs. 8.—But, if the Adjunct Word follows the basis, the Plural termination is commonly attached to the Adjunct.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.—Arm-full, Camera-obscura, Ignis-fatuus,
Plural.—Arm-fulls, Camera-obscuras, Ignis-fatuuses.

Obs. 9.—In forming the Plural of Nouns having titles prefixed or annexed, custom is not uniform.

There seems to be a propriety in regarding a name and its title as a Compound Noun: as, Jonathan Edwards, John Smith, Miss Bates.

If, then, it is decided which part of the Compound Word—the Name or the Title—is to be regarded as the Basis, and which the Adjunct, the Plural termination should be attached as directed in Obs. 7 and 8, above. Thus, Miss Bates and her sister, two ladies unmarried, are Misses. "I called to see the Misses Bates."

"We purchase goods of the Messrs. Barber." Here the titles constitute the Bases—the names, the Adjuncts.

Again: Patterson the father and Patterson the son are two Pattersons. They are both doctors. If we speak of them as men, we make the Name the Basis and the Title as Adjunct; thus, "I visited the two Doctor Pattersons." But if we speak of them as Doctors, we make the Title the Basis, and pluralize it; thus, "We employed Doctors J. & A. Patterson."

OBS. 10.—Some Nouns have no Plurals.

 ${\bf Examples.-Wheat-silver-gold-iron-gratitude.}$

Obs. 11.—Some Nouns have no Singular.

 ${\tt Examples.-Tongs-embers-vespers-literati-scissors.}$

Obs. 12.—Some Nouns have the same Form in both Numbers; i. e., they are not modified by Number.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.—Apparatus, News, Wages, Sheep, Vermin, Plural.—Apparatus, News, Wages, Sheep, Vermin.

Obs. 13.—Some Nouns, having a Singular form, are used in a Plural sense.

Examples.—Horse—foot—cavalry—cannon—sail. One thousand horse and two thousand foot—five hundred cavalry—fifty cannon—twenty sail of the line—and, for supplies, five hundred head of cattle.

Obs. 14.—Some Nouns, having no Plural form to indicate Number, receive a Plural termination to indicate different species.

Examples.—Wines.—" Most wines contain over twenty per cent. of alcohol." Tea.—" The teas of the Nankin Company are all good."

Obs. 15.—Many Latin, Greek, and Hebrew Nouns used in English composition, retain their original Plurals. Commonly the terminations **um** and **on**, of the Singular, are changed into **a**, for the Plural; **x** into **ces**, **is** into **ces**, **a** into **ces**, and **us** into **i**.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.—Datum,	Genus,	Criterion,	Index,	Axis,
Plural.—Data,	Genera,	Criteria,	Indices,	Axes.
Singular.—Erratum,	Stratum,	Nebula,	Parenthesis,	Focus,
Plural.—Errata,	Strata,	Nebulæ,	Parentheses,	Foci.
Singular.—Thesis,	Alumnus,	Analysis,	Ellipsis,	Terminus,
Plural.—Theses,	Alumni,	Analyses,	Ellipses,	Termini.
	QUESTIONS	s for Revi	EW.	

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PAGI	
81.	How form Plural of Nouns ending in fe?See Obs. 5.
	Mention the Nouns that form the Plurals irregu-
	larlySee Obs. 6.
82.	What part of Compound Words are varied for the
	Plurals ?See Obs. 7.
	What part when Adjunct Word follows the Basis? See Obs. 8.
	Explain and apply the law as stated in Obs. 9 See Obs. 9.
	Do all Nouns have Plural forms?See Obs. 10.
	" " Singular forms ?See Obs. 11.
	Are all Nouns modified by Number?—Give ex-
	amplesSee Obs. 12.

EXERCISES IN GENDER, PERSON, AND NUMBER.

Let the Class give, 1st, the Gender—2d, the Person—3d, the Number of each of the following Names,—always giving a reason for the modification, by repeating the Definitions.

William,	Boy,	Town,	Army,
Ganges,	Girl,	County,	Data,
Andes,	Aunt,	Troy,	Index,
Cuba,	Cousin,	City,	Question.

Let Sentences be made, in which the following Words shall be in the Second Person.

MODEL.

"Father, thy hand hath reared this venerable column."

Father,	Stars,	Thou,	Heralds,
Mother,	Hills,	You,	Messengers,
Sun,	Rivers,	Ye,	Walls,
Earth	Woods	Men	Floods

Let other Sentences be made, having the same Words in the Third Person, after the following

MODEL.

"My Father made them all."

Let the following Singular Nouns be changed to their Plurals, and placed in Sentences,—always giving the Rule for the change of Number.

Boy,	Motto,	Fox,	Ox,	Son-in-law,
Father,	Hero,	Staff,	Pea,	Spoon-full,
Man,	Knife,	Goose,	Basis,	Cousin-german,
Child,	Hoof,	Mouse,	Stratum,	Knight-errant.

MODEL.

Let the Gender and Number of the following Nouns be changed and placed in Sentences.

Man,	Bachelor,	Brother,	Poetess,
Boys,	Lioness,	Sons,	Prince,
Uncles,	Geese,	Sister,	Tutor,
Council.	Cow.	Maid.	Widower.

MODELS.

CASE.

DEF. 89.—Case is that modification of Nouns and of Pronouns indicated by their relation to other words.

REM. 1.—A Noun or a Pronoun is used—1. As the Subject of a Sentence. 2. As the Object of an action or relation. 3. As a Definitive of some other Noun. 4. Independent of other Words in the Sentence.

REM. 2.—These different conditions of Nouns suggest their modifications in regard to Case; for *Case*, in English Grammar, means condition. Hence,

English Nouns and Pronouns have four cases—

The Nominative or Subjective Case, The Objective Case, The Possessive Case, and The Independent Case.

OBS.—In the Latin, Greek, German, and many other languages, the Cases of Nouns are determined by their terminations. But, as English Nouns have no inflections, except to form Adjuncts, the Cases are determined only by the offices of Nouns in Sentences. Hence,

[&]quot;The boys have accomplished their tasks."

[&]quot;Two women shall be grinding at the mill."

[&]quot;And the widows of Asher are loud in their wail."

DEF. 90.—A Noun or a Pronoun which is the Subject of a Sentence, is in the Subjective Case.*

EXAMPLES .- Animals run-John saws wood-Resources are developed.

"The king of shadows loves a shining mark."

OBS.—The Subject of a Sentence may be a Noun, a Pronoun, a Phrase, or a Sentence.

Examples

- A Noun.—Virtue secures happiness.
- 2. A Pronoun.-" He plants his footsteps in the sea."
- 8. A Phrase.—" To be able to read well, is a valuable accomplishment."
- 4. A Sentence.—" That good men sometimes commit faults, can not be denied."

DEF. 91.—A Noun or a Pronoun which is the Object of a Sentence or of a Phrase, is in the **Objective Case**.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. John saws wood.
- 2. Science promotes happiness.
- 3. "The king of shadows loves a shining mark."
- 4. "In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth."
- 5. "Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle wheeling near its brow."

Obs.—The Object of a Sentence may consist of a Noun, a Pronoun, a Phrase, or a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.-1. A Noun.-Clara studies Grammar.

- 2. A Pronoun.-Mary instructed her.
- 8. A Phrase.-I favored her using the Diagrams.
- 4. A Sentence.-Mary thought Diagrams might assist her.

DEF. 92.—A Noun or a Pronoun varied in its orthography, so that it may indicate a relation of possession, is in the **Possessive Case**.

Obs. 1.—The Possessive is commonly formed by adding an apostrophe ['] and s to the Nominative form.

EXAMPLES.

Nominative.—Man, Boy, World, George,
Possessive.—Man's, Boy's, World's, George's.

^{*} We prefer the term "Subjective Case" to that of "Nominative." The former term indicates the Office of Nouns—the latter, only the form. Every English Noun has the same form in all its Cases, except the Possessive. Hence, in English Syntax, the term "Nominative" has no distinctive significance. But the term "Subjective" properly indicates the office.

OBS. 2.—In a few Words ending in the Singular with the sound of s or of c soft, the additional s is omitted for euphony.

EXAMPLES .- " For conscience' sake."

"Festus came into Felix' room."

OBS. 3.—Most Plural Nouns ending in s, add the apostrophe only.

EXAMPLES.

Nominative.—Horses,
Possessive.—Horses'.

Eagles, Eagles', Foxes, Foxes'.

"Heroes' and heroines' shouts confusedly rise."

Obs. 4.—The term *Possessive Case* is applied to Nouns and Pronouns, to indicate a peculiar variation of Words in respect of *form*; and, because this form *commonly* indicates a relation of possession, it is termed *Possessive Case*. But,

Obs. 5.—Nouns and Pronouns in the Possessive Case do not always indicate "possession or ownership."

Children's shoes.—Here the word "children's" does not imply ownership. It simply specifies "shoes" as to size.

Small shoes.—Here "small" specifies "shoes" in a similar manner. "Small" and "children's" performing similar offices, are similar in their etymology. "Small" is an Adjective—"Children's" is an Adjective.

OBS. 6.—Possession or ownership is not limited to Nouns and Pronouns in the Possessive form.

EXAMPLES.—1. John owns Webster's Dictionary.

2. William has my knife.

Who possesses the Dictionary? In whose possession is the knife?

REM.—A System of Grammar, having its foundation in the doctrine that Words and other Elements of Sentences are to be classified according to their offices—and that is the proper criterion—must class Possessive Neuns and Pronouns as Adjectives.

OBS. 7.—Words commonly used as Nouns and Pronouns become Adjectives whenever their principal office is to limit or describe beings or things; and they may have the form of the Subjective, of the Possessive, or of the Objective Case.

EXAMPLES.

Subjective Form.—A gold pen—a he goat.

Possessive Form.—Wisdom's ways—thine enemy—my self.

Objective Form.—A gold pen—silver steel—them selves.

DEF. 93.—A Noun or a Pronoun not dependent on any other Word, is in the **Independent Case**.

Obs. 1.—We use the term *Independent case* in a generic sense;—including the five following specific conditions:

1. The names of persons or things addressed.

EXAMPLES.—O Liberty—Friends—Romans—Countrymen.

This may be termed Independent Appellative Case.

2. Nouns and Pronouns used to introduce Independent Phrases.

Example.—The hour having arrived, we commenced the exercises.

This is the Case Absolute.

3. Nouns and Pronouns used in predicate with Verbs and with Participles.

EXAMPLES.-1. God is love. 2. We are friends.

3. Is that you?

4. We had no thought of its being you.

This is called the Predicate Case.

4. Nouns and Pronouns used to limit or specify other Nouns previously mentioned.

EXAMPLE.—Peter the hermit, resembled Peter the Apostle.

This is the *Independent Case in Apposition*. [See Logical Adjunct, p. 34.]

5. Nouns and Pronouns, used as titles of books, signs, cards, or for euphony.

EXAMPLES.—Webster's Dictionary.—"The Sketch Book."—" Tales of a Traveler."—"Bracebridge Hall."—"Adams and Ellis."

"The Moon herself is lost in heaven."

This is the Naming Case.

REM.—Nouns and Pronouns in these various conditions are "not dependent on any other word" for their regimen.

Obs. 2.—In the English language, Nouns are not varied in form to distinguish the Cases, except for the Possessive. The Case is always determined by its office.

- (1.) If it is the Subject of a Sentence, it is, therefore, in the Subjective Case.
- (2.) If it is the Object of a Sentence or the Object of a Phrase, it is, therefore, in the Objective Case.
- (3.) If it has a Possessive form, or any other form, and limits or describes a being or a thing, it performs the office of an Adjunct, and is, therefore, an Adjective.
- (4.) If it performs neither of these offices, it is not joined to any word going before in construction, and is, therefore, in the Independent Case.
- Obs. 3.—Nouns and Pronouns in the Subjective or in the Objective Case are used Substantively.' In the Independent Case they are used Substantively, or as Logical Adjuncts. (See Obs. 2, above.) In the Possessive Case they are commonly used as Grammatical Adjuncts.
- Obs. 4.—Exception.—Nouns and Pronouns of the Possessive form are sometimes used Substantively; but, when thus used, they are in the Subjective, in the Objective, or in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.

- (a.) Subjective.—My book is new; John's is old.

 Mine is little used; yours is soiled.
- "Mine" is the Subject of the Sentence; hence in the Subjective Case.
 - (b.) Objective.-John is a friend of mins.
- "Mine" is the Object of the Preposition " of," hence in the Objective Case.
- Note.—It is a mistaken notion of certain grammarians, that "mine," in the above example, is equivalent to "my friend," and must therefore be "in the Possessive Case, and governed by friend understood."

John is a friend of *mine*; *i. e.*, he is friendly to me. Fred is my enemy; but he is a friend of "my friend, John."

- Is "mine" equivalent to "my friend?" How the notion vanishes before the test!
 - (c.) Independent.—The book is mine; it was yours.
- "Mine" is used in Predicate with "is;" hence in the Independent Predicate Case.

EXERCISES .- 1. Peter visited me.

- 2. I visited Peter.
- 8. Did you ever see the Apostle Peter?
- 4. Peter having gone, we returned.
- 5. "Thou art Peter."
- 6. Where have you been, Peter ?
- 7. Peter, what book is that?
- 8. Do you know what the term "Peter's pence" means?

Let the pupils tell the Case of the word "Peter" in each Example above.

Then make sentences that shall have the words Mary, Albert,-Book, Scholars, in each of the cases and in each subdivision of the Independent Case.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

	QUESTIONS FOR TREVIEW.
PAG	
85.	Define Case as used in English GrammarSee Def. 89.
	In what four distinct conditions are Nouns used? See Rem.
	How many Cases in English Grammar?See Prin.
	In the Ancient Languages, how were Cases distin-
	guished ?See Obs. 1.
	In English, how are Cases determined?See Obs. 1.
86.	When is a Noun or a Pronoun in the Nominative
	or Subjective Case?See Def. 90.
	The Subject of a Sentence may consist of what? See Obs.
	Give Examples of Nouns used as Subjects.
	" of Pronouns—of Phrases—of Sentences.
	When is a Noun in the Objective Case?See Def. 91.
	The Object of a Sentence may consist of what?See Obs.
	Give Examples of Word Objects-of Phrase Ob-
	jects—of Sentence Objects.
	When is a Noun or a Pronoun in the Possessive
•	Case ?See Def. 92.
	How is the Possessive Case of Nouns formed?See Obs. 1.
87.	When do we omit the s?See Obs. 2.
	What Nouns require the apostrophe (1)?
	Why do we use the term Possessive Case in Gram-
	mar?See Obs. 4.
	Do Nouns and Pronouns of the Possessive Case
	always indicate Possession?See Obs. 5.
	Is possession or ownership always indicated by
	the Possessive Case?See Obs. 6.
	May a Noun in any form become an Adjective? See Obs. 7.

PAGE	:						
88.	Wł	ıen	is a :	Noun or a Pr	onoun i	ı the	Independent
							See Def. 93.
	Tn						Independent
							See Obs. 1.
	307 1.						· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
		en:	is an				d Appellative?
	•	•	•••	"	"	"	Absolute?
	6	4	"	"	44	"	in Predicate?
	4	4	"	"	"	"	in Apposition?
	6		"	44	"	"	Naming or Nominative.
	A11	No	กกรร	and Pronoun	s used a	s Sul	bjects of Sen-
							See Obs. 2.
	A 11						jects of Sen-
	****						See Obs. 2.
	All						ve form are in
		wh	at C	ase ?			See Obs. 2.
All Nouns and Pronouns not Subjects, nor Objects,							
							e?See Obs. 2.
	W h						l as Adjuncts,
	44 19						
		wh	at ce	ise must they	de in?.	• • • •	See Obs. 4.

PRONOUNS.

REM.—To avoid an unpleasant repetition of the same Word in a Sentence, a class of Words is introduced as Substitutes for Names. Hence,

DEF. 94.—A **Pronoun** is a Word used instead of a Noun.

Obs. 1.—As Pronouns are of general application, the Noun or the Pronoun for which any given Pronoun is substituted, is commonly determined by the context—and, because it generally precedes the Pronoun, it is called its *Antecedent*.

OBS. 2.—The Antecedent of a Pronoun may be a Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. A Word.—" James has injured HIMSELF; HE has studied too much."
- 2. "Come, ye who love the Lord."
- 3. A Phrase.—" William's abandoning a good situation in hopes of a better, was never approved by me. It has been the prime cause of all his troubles."
- 4. A Sentence.—"I am glad that Charles has secured a liberal education. Ir is what few poor boys have the perseverance to accomplish."

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS.

REM.—Some Pronouns, by their forms, denote their modification of Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

Others introduce Adjective Sentences to which they belong.

Others, in addition to their ordinary office, are used in asking questions.

Others describe the Names for which they are substituted. Hence,

Pronouns are distinguished as

Personal Pronouns, Relative or Conjunctive Pronouns, Interrogative Pronouns, and Adjective Pronouns.

PERSONAL PRONOUN.

Def. 95.—A **Personal Pronoun** is a Pronoun whose form determines its Person and Number.

Obs.—The Personal Pronouns are $\begin{cases} Simple \text{ or } \\ Compound. \end{cases}$

LIST.

Simple.—I, thou, you, he, she, it, Compound.—Myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself.

Obs.—These are called Personal Pronouns, not because they always represent *persons*, but because their forms decide whether they indicate the speaker, the person or the thing spoken to, or the person or the thing spoken of.

Modification.

REM.—Whenever one Word is used in the place of another, it is properly subjected to the same laws as the other; this is true of Pronouns. Hence,

PRIN.—Pronouns have the same modifications of Gender, Person, Number, and Case, as Nouns.

REM.—To denote these several modifications, some Pronouns are varied in form. This variation of form is called Declension.

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS.

1. SIMPLE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

FIRST PERSON.

Subjective.	Possessive.	Objective.	Independent.
Singular.—I,	my,	me,	I or me.*
Plural.—We,	our,	us,	we or us.
	SECOND P	erson.	
Singular.—You,	your,	you,	you.
Plural.—You,	your,	you,	you.
SEC	OND PERSON.	—Solemn Style.	•
Singular.—Thou,	thy,	thee,	thou or thee.
Plural.—Ye,	your,	you,	ye or you.
T	HIRD PERSON.	-Masculine.	
Singular.—He,	his,	him,	he or him.
Plural.—They,	their,	them,	they or them.
Т	HIRD PERSON	.—Feminine.	
Singular.—She,	her,	her,	she or her.
Plural.—They,	their,	them,	they or them.
1	THIRD PERSO	N.—Neuter.	
Singular.—It	its,	it,	it.
Plural.—They,	their,	them,	they or them.
Ope 1 -From the	above Peredi	rm notice	

- Obs. 1.—From the above Paradigm, notice,
 - That Pronouns of the Third Person Singular only are varied to denote the sex.
 - That the Pronoun you is not varied to denote the Number.
 This is a modern innovation; but the idiom is too well established to yield to criticism or protest.
 - That the principal variations of form are made to distinguish the Cases.
 - 4. That, to distinguish the Persons, different words are employed.

OBS. 2.—Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, and theirs, are commonly used "to specify or otherwise describe Nouns and Pronouns;"

^{*} Pronouns in the Independent Case commonly take the form of the Subjective, as, "O happy they!"—"Ah, luckless he!"—"It is I!" But they sometimes take the form of the Objective, as, "Him excepted."—"I found it to be him."—"Ah me!"



and when thus used, they are therefore Adjectives. They are placed here to denote their origin, and to accommodate such teachers as, by force of habit, are inclined to call them Pronouns in all conditions. (See Possessive Specifying Adjectives, p. 99.)

Obs. 3.—Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, and theirs. are sometimes used Substantively, i. e., as the Subjects or the Objects of Sentences—the Objects of Phrases, or as Independent Words; and when thus used, they are therefore Substantives. (See Adjective Pronouns.)

EXAMPLES.

Subject of a Sentence.—"My sword and yours are kin."—Shakspeare.

Object of a Sentence.—"You seek your interests; we follow ours."

Object of a Phrase.—"Therefore leave your forest of beasts for ours of brutes, called men."—Wesley to Pope.

"John is a friend of mine."

Independent .- " Thine is the kingdom."

" Theirs had been the vigor of their youth."

Obs. 4.—The Pronoun \dot{u} is often used indefinitely, and may have an Antecedent of the First, the Second, or the Third Person, of the Singular or of the Plural number; and sometimes it has no antecedent.

EXAMPLES.—"It is I."—"Was it thou?"—"Is it you?"

It was John.—Was it the boys?

It snows.—It blows.—It seems.

Obs. 5.—That for which a Pronoun is used, may also be a Phrase or a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

A Phrase.—1. "It is good to be here."

A Sentence.—2. "It remains that we speak of its moral effects."

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Def. 96.—A **Relative*** or **Conjunctive Pronoun** is a Pronoun used to introduce a Sentence which qualifies its own antecedent.

EXAMPLES.-1. The youth who was speaking, was applauded.

- 2. We saw the man whom you described.
- 3. "Mount the horse which I have chosen for thee."

^{*} By most authors the term "Relative" is applied to these Pronouns. "Conjunctive" is a more appropriate term, as they always introduce Auxiliary Sentences. But Pupils may use either term,—as preferred by the Teacher.

Obs. 1.—In Example 1, "who" relates to "youth," and introduces the Auxiliary Sentence ("who was speaking"), whose office it is to describe "youth."

The word "who" not only introduces the Adjunct Sentence, but is also an Element in that Sentence—a Principal Element—the Subject.

In Example 2, "whom you described," is an Auxiliary Sentence, used to describe or point out a particular "man;" "whom" introduces that Adjective Sentence, is the object of "described," and relates to "man."

LIST.

The Words used as Conjunctive Pronouns are, who, which, that, and what.

Obs. 2.—The Words as and than are sometimes, by ellipsis, used as Conjunctive Pronouns.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Such as I have, give I unto thee,"

2. "We have more than heart could wish."

But, generally, on supplying the ellipsis, we may make those words supply the offices of Prepositions or of Conjunctions. Thus,

- 1. "I give unto thee such [things] as [those which] I have."
- 2. "We have more [things] than [those things which] heart could wish."

OBS. 3.—Who is varied in Declension to indicate the Cases only. Which, that, and what, are not declined. But the word whose is also used as the Possessive of which.

Nom.	Pos.	Obj.	Indep.
Who,	Whose,*	Whom,	Who or whom.
Which,	Whose,	Which,	Which.
That,	·	That,	That.
What,		What,	What.

Obs. 4.—Who is applied to man, or to beings supposed to possess intelligence.

Examples.—He who studies will excel those who do not. "He whom seasevered realms obey."

Obs. 5.—Which and what are applied to brute animals and to things.

EXAMPLES.—The books which I lost.—The pen which I use is good.—We value most what costs us most.

^{*} Whose is always a definitive, attached to Nouns, and may relate to persons or to things; as, "Whose I am, and whom I serve."—" Whose body Nature is, and God the sonl."



OBS. 6.—That is applied to man or to things

EXAMPLES.-1. "Them that honor me, I will honor."

2. "The rose that all are praising, Is not the rose for me."

Obs. 7.—What, when used as a Relative, is always compound; and is equivalent to that which, or the things which.

EXAMPLES.-" What Reason weaves, by Passion is undone."

REM. 1.—In the combination of these two elements, that is contracted into ..at, and which, the Relative part, is contracted to wh..., and being prefixed to the Antecedent part, becomes wh....at—what.

It should be borne in mind that the Antecedent part of this word is never Relative—but always an Adjective Pronoun, or an Adjective.

REM. 2.—The two Elements of this Word never belong to the same Sentence; one part introduces a Sentence which qualifies the antecedent part of the same word.

"Our proper bliss depends on wh at we blame."

In this example, "what" is a Compound *Pronoun*, equivalent to the two words that which. That, the Antecedent part, is the object of "on;" "which," the Relative part, is the object of "blame." The Auxiliary Sentence, "we blame which," is used to qualify "that." [See p. 63, last Diagram.]

OBS. 8.—The Compounds, whoever, whosoever, whichever, whichsoever, whatever, and whatsoever, are construed similarly to what.

Example.-" Wh at ever purifies, fortifies also the heart."

REM. 1.—Ever, in combinations like these, seems originally to have been "every"—an Adjective element in the compound word, attached to the Antecedent part. Thus,

Every thing which purifies, fortifies also the heart. Every that which purifies, fortifies also the heart. What purifies, fortifies, also the heart. Every what, or whatever purifies, fortifies also the heart.

So also

Whoever is equivalent to Every one who.

" Whoever will, may come."
Every one who will, may come.

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REM. 2.—The antecedent part is sometimes suppressed.

Example.—" Who—lives to nature, rarely can be poor."

Every [one] who lives to nature, rarely can be poor.

Who ever lives to nature, rarely can be poor.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

DEF. 97.—An Interrogative Pronoun is a Pronoun used to ask a question.

EXAMPLES.-" Who will show us any good ?"

- "Which do you prefer?"
- " What will satisfy him ?"

LIST.

OBS. 1.—The Interrogative Pronouns are,

Whoapplied to man.

Which \applied to man or to things.

EXAMPLES.-1. Who was John the Baptist?

- 2. Which will you have?
- 3. What can compensate for loss of character?

Obs. 2.—The Antecedent—technically so called—of an Interrogative Pronoun, is the Word which answers the question.

EXAMPLES.—Who gave the valedictory? Wheeler.

Whom shall we obey? Our parents.

OBS. 3.—A Word which asks a question is to be construed as is the Word which answers it.

EXAMPLES.—Who has the book? John [has the book].

Whose book is it? [It is] William's [book].

- " William's" describes "book;" hence an Adjunct of "book."
- "Whose" has the same construction; hence an Adjunct of "book."

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

DEF. 98.—An **Adjective Pronoun** is a Definitive Word, used to supply the place of the Word which it limits.

REM.—Words of this class are primarily Adjectives—becoming Pronouns only by being *substituted* for the Nouns which they describe.

EXAMPLE.—" Some [] said one thing, and some, quother" [].

Obs. 1.—In this Example, "some" defines people (understood), and is, therefore, used Adjectively. It is substituted for the Word "people," constituting the Subject of the Sentence; hence it is used Substantively. But the Substantive being the principal office, the Word is properly called a Pronoun. Its secondary office being Adjective, it is properly called an Adjective Pronoun.

Obs. 2.—Supply the Noun, and the Word becomes simply Adjective.

EXAMPLE.—Some PEOPLE said one thing, and some PEOPLE said another THING.

Here "some" and "another" are Specifying Adjectives of PEOPLE.

OBS. 3.—An Adjective Pronoun always performs, at the same time, two distinct offices—an Adjective office and a Substantive office; and it may have, at the same time, an Adjective and an Adverbial Adjunct.

Example.—" The professedly good are not always really so."

"Good" describes people (understood), thus performing an Adjective office.

"Good" is the Subject of the Sentence; hence a Substantive.

As a Substantive, "good" is limited by the Adjective "the."

As an Adjective, "good" is modified by the Adverb "professedly."

REM.—Words thus used are, by some grammarians, called "Pronominal Adjectives." We prefer the term "Adjective Pronoun," because the *Principal* office is *Substantive*—the Adjective office being *secondary* in the structure of Sentences and of Phrases.

OBS. 4.—Adjective Pronouns may be derived from—

Qualifying Adjectives, Specifying Adjectives, and Verbal Adjectives.

OBS. 5.—Many Verbal and all Qualifying Adjectives, may become Adjective Pronouns by placing the specifying Adjective the before them.

EXAMPLES.-1. "The proof of the pudding is in the eating."

- 2. "Who are the called, according to his purpose."
- 3. "He sendeth rain on the just and on the unjust."

Obs. 6.—Adjective Pronouns derived from Specifying Adjectives may be

Possessive, Demonstrative. Distributive, Indefinite.

The Possessives are-

Mine—All thine are mine.

Thine-And thine are mine.

His-I prefer his to hers.

Hers-Yet hers is better than his.

Ours-Miss Ward is a friend of ours.

Yours-Our grapes are preferable to yours.

Theirs—Theirs were better than ours.

The Demonstratives are-

This-" Memory and Forecast just returns engage,

That pointing back to youth, this, on TO AGE.

These-" Farewell my friends, farewell my foes.

Those- My peace with these, my love with those."

The Distributives are—

Each-Each prefers his own.

Either-I shall be satisfied with either.

Neither—The hats are returned, because neither of them fits.

None-" None! Then none have I offended."

Each other—The two desperadoes killed each other.

One another-Boys should not interrupt one another.

The Indefinites are—

All—"All join to guard what each desires to gain."

Another-" Art thou He, or do we look for another?"

Any—Have any of the pupils given an example?

Both—"Lepidus flatters both, of both is flattered."

Some—"Some deemed him wondrous wise."

Such—Such as I have, give I to you.

REM.—Other words, when preceded by the, may be added to each of the above classes.

The one.

The same.
The former.

The elect.
The right.

The whole.
The half.

The other.
The first.

The latter.

The left.

The nair.

RECAPITULATION.				
			Radical Separable. Inseparable.	
Words are distinguished	By their Forms		Derivative { Prefix . Root . Suffix .	
	and	i	Compound { Basis. Adjunct.	
	By their U	ses≺	Pronouns. Adjectives. Verbs. Adverbs. Prepositions. Conjunctions. Exclamations. Words of Euphony	
Nouns are	Proper or Common		Concrete. Abstract. Collective, Verbal.	
$ \begin{array}{l} \textbf{Pronouns are.} & \begin{cases} \textbf{Personal.} \\ \textbf{Relative, or} \\ \textbf{Interrogati} \\ \textbf{Adjective.} \end{cases} $		r Conjunc ve.	ctive.	
Modification of Nouns and Pronouns.				
		Gender.	Masculine. Feminine. Neuter.	
Nouns and Prommodified by		Person .	{ First. Second. Third.	
		Number	Singular. Plural.	
		Case	Subjective. Objective. Possessive. Independent.	

PRONOUNS. .

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

PAG	
91.	Define a PronounSee Def. 94.
	What is the Antecedent of a Pronoun? See Obs. 1.
	The Antecedent may consist of what? See Obs. 2.
92.	How are Pronouns distinguished?See Prin.
	What is a Personal Pronoun?See Def. 95
	What distinct classes of Personal Pronouns?See Obs.
	What words are used as Simple Personal Pronouns? See List.
	What words are called Compound Personal Pronouns?
	Why are these words called <i>Personal Pronouns?</i> See Obs.
	What modifications have Pronouns? See Prin
	What is meant by Declension of Pronouns? See Rem.
93.	What Pronouns, by their forms, distinguish sex? See Obs.
	What Personal Pronouns are alike in both numbers?
94.	What is said of the various uses of the word it? See Obs. 4.
	What is a Relative or Conjunctive Pronoun? See Def. 96.
	What twofold offices do these words perform?See Obs. 1.
95.	Give a List of the Relative Pronouns.
	What is said of as and than?See Obs. 2.
	What Conjunctive Pronouns are varied to indicate
	the Case?See Obs. 3.
	When do we use who? When use the word what?
96.	When use the word that as a Simple Pronoun?
	What is the peculiar use of the word what?See Obs. 7.
	Resolve "what" into its elements See Rem.
	What part of speech is the Antecedent Element of "what?"
	Name the Compound RelativesSee Obs. 8.
	Analyze the words whatever and whoeverSee Rem.
97.	What is an Interrogative Pronoun?See Def. 97.
	What words are used as Interrogative Pronouns? See Obs. 1.
	How may we ascertain the Antecedent of an Interrogative?
	What is an Adjective Pronoun?See Def. 98.
	Why called Pronouns?See Rem.
9 8.	Why called Adjective Pronouns?See Obs. 1.
	How may these words become simply Adjectives? See Obs. 2.
	How do we show the twofold offices of these
	words ?See Obs. 3.
	From what are Adjective Pronouns derived?See Obs. 4.
	What are the classes of Adjective Pronouns?See Obs. 5.
	What Adjectives may become Adjective Pronouns
	—and how? See Obs. 6.

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99. What words are used as Possessive Adjective Pronouns?
What words are used as Demonstrative Adjective Pronouns?
What words are used as Distributive Adjective Pronouns?
What words are used as Indefinite Adjective Pronouns?

ADJECTIVES.

REM.—As things possess individuality, and have points of difference from one another, so we have Words which point out and describe those things, and mark their differences from other things. Hence,

DEF. 99.—An **Adjective** is a Word used to qualify or otherwise describe a Noun or a Pronoun.

EXAMPLES.—Good—amiable — the—our — earnest—falling—young—conscientions—correct—famous.

A good boy.

An amiable young lady.

Our national resources.

Falling leaves.

Conscientious Christian.

Correct expression.

REM.—Any word, of whatever form or origin, used chiefly as an Adjunct of a Substantive, is therefore Adjective.

CLASSIFICATION.

REM.—Adjectives are used—

- 1. To express a quality—as, good boy—red rose—sweet apple.
- 2. To specify or limit—as, the book—thy pen—three boys.
- 3. To express, incidentally, a condition, state, or act—as, loving friend—wheeling orbs—injured reputation. Hence,

PRIN.—Adjectives are distinguished as.. (Qualifying Adjectives, and Verbal Adjectives.

QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES.

DEF. 100.—A Qualifying Adjective is a Word used to describe a Substantive by expressing a quality.

Examples.-Good-sweet-cold-honorable-amiable-virtuous.

An honorable man.
An amiable disposition.
A virtuous woman.

Some good fruit.
Three sweet oranges.
Much cold water.

SPECIFYING ADJECTIVES.

DEF. 101.—A **Specifying Adjective** is a Word used to define or limit the application of a Substantive without denoting a quality.

EXAMPLES.-A-an-the-this-that-some-three-my.

A man of letters.

An educated man.

The question at issue.

This road.

That mountain in the distance.
Some good fruit.
Three sweet oranges.
Mu enemy.

PROPER ADJECTIVES.

DEF. 102.—Adjectives derived from Proper Nouns are called **Proper Adjectives**.

EXAMPLES.—Arabian-Grecian-Turkish-French.

INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES.

OBS.—Which, what, and sometimes whose, when used as Adjectives, are called Interrogative Adjectives when they indicate a question.

EXAMPLES.-1. Which side will you take ?

- 2. What evil hath he done?
- 8. Whose book is that?

REM.—Adjectives may specify—

- 1. By simply pointing out things—by limiting or designating
- 2. By denoting relation of ownership, adaptation, or origin.
- 3. By denoting number, definite or indefinite. Hence,

PRIN.—Specifying Adjectives, Numeral Adjectives, and Possessive Adjectives.

DEF. 103.—A **Pure Adjective** is a Word used only to point out or designate things.

EXAMPLES.-The-that-those-such-next-same-other.

Thou art the man.

That question is settled.

Those books are received.

"Such shames are common."

The next class.
The same lesson.
Other cares intrude.
Any man may learn wisdom.

DEF. 104.—A **Possessive Adjective** is a Word that describes a being or thing by indicating a relation of ownership, origin, fitness, etc.

Examples.-My-our-their-whose-children's-John's-teacher's.

My father—my neighbor.
Our enemies.
Their losses are severe.

Children's shoes. John's horse. Teacher's absence.

- 2. "O my offense is rank; it smells to heaven;
- It hath the primal, eldest curse upon it, A brother's m u r d e r."
- 4. "He heard the king's command, and saw that writing's fruth."

Note.—A Possessive Adjective is generally derived from a Substantive, by changing the Normal into the Possessive form.

Thus: "He heard the king's command," is equivalent to, He heard the command of the king.

DEF. 105.—A **Numeral Adjective** is a Word used to denote *Number*.

EXAMPLES.—One-ten-first-second-fourfold-few-many.

Obs. 1.—Numeral Adjectives may be,

Cardinal.—One—two—three—four.

Ordinal.—First—second—third—fourth.

Multiplicative.—Single—double—quadruple.

Indefinite.—Few-many-some (denoting number).

Obs. 2.—A and an, when they denote number, are to be classed as Numeral Adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Not a drum was heard, nor a funeral note."
Not one drum was heard.

2 "Not an instance is on record." Not one instance is on record.

VERBAL ADJECTIVES.

DEF. 106.—A **Verbal Adjective** is a Word used to describe a Noun or a Pronoun, by expressing, incidentally, a condition, state, or act.

Obs.—This class of Adjectives consists of *Participles*, used primarily to describe Nouns and Pronouns.

EXAMPLES.—1. A running brook. 2. A standing pond.

8. I saw a boy running to school.

4. Another standing by the way.

5. "Scaling yonder peak,
I saw an eagle wheeling near its brow.

In this example the Sentence is, "Isaw eagle;" and "scaling yonder peak," is a Phrase used to describe "I." "Wheeling near its brow," describes "eagle." Scaling and wheeling are Participles used to describe a Noun and a Pronoun—hence they are, in their office, Adjectives. (See Def. 99.) They describe by expressing (not in the character of Predicates, but), "incidentally, a condition, state, or act," of "I" and "eagle"—hence they are Verbal Adjectives.

REM. 1.—To render the classification more simple, we have preferred to class all Participles used *chiefly* to describe Nouns and Pronouns, as *Adjectives*—and, because they are derived from Verbs, and retain more or less of the properties of the Verbs from which they are derived, we use the term *Verbul Adjectives*.

But Teachers who are unwilling to do more than simply to call them Participles, will not find it difficult to adapt their views to the plan of this work; the Pupil being taught that—

" Participles, like Adjectives, belong to Nouns and Pronouns."

And, in the use of Diagrams-

"Participles used to limit Substantives, occupy the same position as Adjectives."

REM. 2.—Participles used as Adjectives, commonly retain their verbal character, and, like their Verbs, may have Objects after them. Hence,

PRIN.—Verbal Adjectives are dis- \ Transitive or tinguished as......\ Intransitive.

EXAMPLES.

Intransitive .- 1. "He possessed a well-balanced mind."

2. "Truth, crushed to earth. will rise again."

Transitive.—3. "Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle."

4. "We saw the children picking berries."

COMPOUND ADJECTIVES.

Def. 107.—Adjectives consisting of Compound Words are called Compound Adjectives.

EXAMPLES. - Everlasting-hard-hearted-tempest-tossed.

MODIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES.

REM.—Most Qualifying Adjectives express, by variations in form, different degrees of quality. Hence,

Prin.—Some Adjectives are varied in form to denote Comparison.

There may be four degrees of comparison.

- 1. Diminutive......bluish.....saltish.
- 2. Positive......blue....salt.
- 3. Comparativebluersalter.
- 4. Superlative......bluest.....saltest.

DEF. 108.—The **Diminutive Degree** denotes an amount of the quality less than the Positive.

It is commonly formed by adding ish to the form of the Positive. Examples.—Bluish—saltish.

DEF. 109.—The **Positive Degree** expresses quality in its simplest form.

EXAMPLES.—Blue—salt—large—pure—rich—good—glimmering.

DEF. 110.—The **Comparative Degree** expresses an increase or a decrease of the Positive.

It is commonly formed by adding er, or the Words more or less, to the form of the Positive.

- Examples.—1. Larger—purer—richer—more common—less objectionable.
 - 2. "Richer by far is the heart's adoration."

Def. 111.—The **Superlative Degree** expresses the greatest increase or decrease of the quality of the Adjective.

It is commonly formed by adding est, or the Words most or least, to the form of the Positive.

- Examples.—1. Largest—purest—most ungrateful—smallest—uppermost.
 - 2. "The purest treasure mortal times afford Is—spotless reputation."

Obs. 1.—By the use of other Words, the degrees of Comparison may be rendered indefinitely numerous.

Obs. 2.—Comparison descending, is expressed by prefixing the Words less and least to the Adjective.

Examples.—Wise, less wise, least wise—ambitious, less ambitious, least ambitious.

OBS. 3.—Most Adjectives of two or more syllables are compared by prefixing the words *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*, to the Positive.

EXAMPLES.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Careful	more careful	most careful.
Careful	less careful	least careful.

Obs. 4.—Some Adjectives may be compared by either method specified above.

EXAMPLES.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Remote	remot <i>er</i>	remot <i>est</i> .
Remote		most remote.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

Some Adjectives are irregular in comparison.

EXAMPLES.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Good	better	best.
Bad	worse	worst.
Little	less	least.
Many	more	most.
Much	more	most.
For	farther	farthest.
rai	further	furthermost.
Old	} older	oldest.
O1d	elder	eldest.

Obs. 5.—Some Adjectives want the Positive.

EXAMPLES.-1. After, aftermost-nether, nethermost.

2. "He was in the after part of the ship."

OBS. 6.—Some Adjectives want the Comparative.

EXAMPLES.-1. Top, topmost.

2. "He stood upon the topmost round."

Obs. 7.—Some Adjectives can not be compared—the qualities they indicate not being susceptible of increase or diminution.

EXAMPLES.—Round—square—triangular—infinite.

ADJECTIVE PHRASES AND SENTENCES.

REM.—Things may be described not only by Words, but also by Phrases and by Sentences.

EXAMPLES.

Adjective Phrases .- 1. "The TIME of my departure is at hand."

2. " Night is the TIME for rest."

3. "Turn, gentle hermit of the vale."

"Of my departure," tells what "time." "Of the vale," is a Phrase, used here to tell what "hermit." Hence an Adjective Phrase.

Adjective Sentences.-1. "He that getteth wisdom, loveth his own soul."

- 2. Mount the Horse which I have chosen for thee.
- 3. "Thou, whose spell can raise the dead, Bid the prophet's form appear."

"Which I have chosen for thee," is a Sentence used here to tell which "horse." Hence an Adjective Sentence.

RECAPITULATION.

	Qualifying	Superlative. Comparative. Positive. Diminutive.
Adjectives are distinguished as	Specifying	Pure. Numeral. Possessive.
	Verbal	Transitive. Intransitive.

EXERCISES.

Let the Pupil determine which of the following Adjectives are Qualifying, which are Specifying, and which are Verbal. Of the Qualifying Adjectives, which can be compared, and how compared—of the Specifying Adjectives, which are Pure, which Numeral, and which Possessive—of the Verbal, which are Transitive and which are Intransitive.

Able,	False,	That,	Forgotten,
Bold,	Good,	Three,	Standing,
Capable,	Honest,	Tenth,	Loving,
Doubtful,	Infinite,	Twice,	Admonished,
Eager,	Just,	Several,	Unknown,
These,	Dim,	Human,	Winding.

Then place the Words in Sentences, and Parse them after the MODELS given below. Thus,

"These dim vaults, these winding aisles
Of human pomp or pride, report not."

FIRST MODEL.

- These.....describe "vaults;" hence an Adjective—for "a Word used to qualify or otherwise describe a Noun or a Pronoun, is an Adjective."
 - " ... Specifies; hence Specifying—for "an Adjective used only to limit, is a Specifying Adjective."
- Dim.....qualifies "vaults;" hence an Adjective—for "a Word used to qualify or otherwise describe a Noun or a Pronoun, is an Adjective."
 - ".....Expresses a quality; hence Qualifying—for "a Word used to describe a Noun by expressing a quality, is a Qualifying Adjective."
- Vaults....is a Name; hence a Noun—for "the Name of a being, place, or thing, is a Noun."
 - "Name of a sort or class; hence common—for "a Name used to designate a class or sort of beings, places, or things, is a Common Noun."
 - "Spoken of; hence, Third Person—for "the Name of a person or thing spoken of, is of the Third Person."
 - "Denotes more than one; hence Plural Number—for
 "Nouns denoting more than one, are of the Plural
 Number."
 - "Subject of the Sentence; hence Subjective Case—for "the subject of a Sentence is in the Subjective Case."
- Winding..describes "aisles;" hence an Adjective—for "a Word used to qualify or otherwise describe a Noun or a Pronoun, is an Adjective."
 - " .. describes, by expressing a condition; hence Verbal—for "a Word used to describe a Noun by expressing, incidentally, a condition, state, or act, is a Verbal Adjective."

- Human...describes "pomp" or "pride;" hence an Adjective—for
 "a Word used to qualify or otherwise describe a Noun
 or a Pronoun, is an Adjective."
 - " ... Expresses a quality; hence Qualifying—for "a Word used to describe a Noun by expressing a quality, is a Qualifying Adjective."

[It is profitable to repeat the Definitions until they become familiar; after that they may be omitted—the parts of speech and the classes and modifications of the several Words being simply named, as in the following exercise.]

SECOND MODEL.

"No fantastic carvings show The boast of our vain race, to change the form Of thy fair works."

			Class.	Person.	Number.	Case.
No	is an	Adjective	Specifying,			limits " carvings."
Fantastic	; "	Adjective	Qualifying,			qualifies "carvings."
Carvings	"	Noun	Common,	Third,	Plu.	Sub. to "show."
The	**	Adjective	Specifying,			limits "boast."
Boast	**	Noun	Common,	Third,	Sing.	Obj. of "show."

The Teacher will abridge or extend these Exercises at pleasure. Then let four Sentences be made, each containing the Word good, so that, in the first, it will qualify the Subject—in the second, the Object—in the third, the Object of a Phrase attached to the Subject—in the fourth, the Object of a Phrase attached to the Object.

In like manner use the Words amiable—honest—industrious—wise—this—some—loving—loved. Thus,

- 1. That amiable young lady was at the lecture.
- 2. We saw the amiable gentleman.
- 3. The benefits of an amiable disposition are numerous.
- 4. She possesses the advantages of an amiable temper

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

102	What is an Adjective?	See Def 99
10%.	Why are Adjectives used?	
	For what various purposes are Adjectives used?	
	How are Adjectives distinguished?	
	What is a Qualifying Adjective?	See Def. 100.
	Give Examples.	

108. What is a Specifying Adjective?
What is a Proper Adjective?
Give Examples. What is an Interrogative Adjective?
What is an Interrogative Adjective?
Give Examples. How are Specifying Adjectives distinguished? What is a Pure Specifying Adjective?
How are Specifying Adjectives distinguished? What is a Pure Specifying Adjective?
What is a Pure Specifying Adjective?
What is a Pure Specifying Adjective?
104. What is a Possessive Specifying Adjective?See Def. 104. How are Possessive Adjectives formed?See Note. What is a Numeral Adjective?See Def. 105. Give Examples. What is a Verbal Adjective?.See Def. 106. Give Examples. 105. How are Verbal Adjectives distinguished?.See Prin. 106. How are Adjectives modified?.See Prin.
How are Possessive Adjectives formed?
Give Examples. What is a Verbal Adjective?
What is a Verbal Adjective?
Give Examples. 105. How are Verbal Adjectives distinguished?See Prin. 106. How are Adjectives modified?See Prin.
Give Examples. 105. How are Verbal Adjectives distinguished?See Prin. 106. How are Adjectives modified?See Prin.
106. How are Adjectives modified?See Prin.
106. How are Adjectives modified?See Prin.
How many Degrees of Comparison may some
Adjectives have?See Obs.
When is an Adjective of the Diminutive form?. See Def. 108.
When is an Adjective of the Positive form ? See Def. 109.
When is an Adjective of the Comparative form?
When is an Adjective of the Superlative form?. See Def. 110.
107. What is said of Comparison descending?See Obs. 2.
When do we prefix a Word to denote Compari-
son?See Obs. 3.
What Adjectives are compared irregularly?
Are all Adjectives compared?See Obs. 7.

VERBS.

REMARK.—As all things in the universe live, move, or have a being, we necessarily have a class of Words used to express the act, being, or state of those things. Hence,

DEF. 112.—A **Verb** is a Word used to express the act, being, or state of a person or of a thing.

CLASSIFICATION.

REMARK.—(a.) Some Verbs are used as *Predicates* of Sentences; others are used as *Subsequents* of Phrases.

- (b.) Some are followed by Objects; others have no Objects.
- (c.) Some are used to make a principal assertion; others are used to indicate manner, time, or other contingency.
- (d.) Some admit a regular method of Conjugation; others have special or peculiar forms to indicate their modifications.

Hence,

PRIN.—By their functions,

Verbs are | Finite or Infinite.

PRIN.—By their relation to Objects,

Verbs are { Transitive or Intransitive.

Prin.—By their offices in Predicate,

Verbs are { Principal or Auxiliary.

PRIN.—By their variations in form,

Verbs are { Regular or Irregular.

DEF. 113.—A Finite Verb is a Verb that is used in Predicate of a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.—John studies—He learns.

Obs.—Every Finite Verb must be associated with a Substantive as its Subject—expressed or implied.

DEF. 114.—An **Infinitive Verb** is a Verb that is not used in Predicate of a Sentence.

Obs.—Infinitive Verbs are used as Subsequents of Infinitive Phrases—always used with the Preposition ω , expressed or understood.

EXAMPLES.-To learn-John is eager to learn.

DEF. 115.—A Verb is **Transitive** when it expresses an action which terminates on an Object.

EXAMPLES.-John saws wood-God created heaven and earth.

DEF. 116.—A Verb is **Intransitive** when it expresses the being or state of its Subject, or an action which does not terminate on an Object.

EXAMPLES.—Animals run—I sit—John is sleepy.

Obs. 1.—Some Verbs are, in their nature, Transitive; others are naturally Intransitive; and some others are used transitively or intransitively.

EXAMPLES

MAARILES.	
1. "Cold blows the wind."	"Blows" is Intransitive.
2. "The wind blows the dust."	"Blows" is Transitive.
3. "It has swept through the earth."	Intransitive.
4. "Jane has swept the floor."	Transitive.
5. "God moves in a mysterious way."	Intransitive.
6. "Such influences do not move me."	Transitive.

Hence,

OBS. 2.—The character of a Verb is determined by that of the Sentence of which it is the Predicate. Any Verb is transitive only when its Sentence is transitive—only when it demands an Object in construction.

DEF. 117.—A **Principal Verb** is a Verb that makes the complete or the principal assertion.

Examples.—John does study—James can study—Anne should study.

DEF. 118.—An Auxiliary Verb is a Verb that is prefixed to another Verb or to a Participle, to distinguish the Voice, Mode, or Tense of the Principal Verb.

LIST.

		LIST.		
•	Always	Auxilio	aries.	
Present.—Can, Past.—Could,	ma mi	y, ght,	must,	shall, should.
Sa	metimes	Principa	al Verbs.	
Present.—Am, Past.—Was,	be, was,	do, did,	have, had,	will, would.

DEF. 119.—A Verb whose Past Tense is formed by the addition of *ed* to the Radical, is **Regular** in Conjugation.

EXAMPLES.—Present Tense.—I love, act, save, fear, Past Tense.—I loved, acted, saved, feared.

Obs.—All Regular Verbs are conjugated in the same manner—having similar terminations for the same tenses.

EXCEPTION 1.—Some Verbs, for euphony, drop the final letter of the Radical.

Examples.—Love, loved—Save, saved—Recite, recited.

EXCEPTION 2.—Some Verbs, for euphony, drop a final letter of the Radical.

EXAMPLES.—Tan, tanned—Transmit, transmitted.

DEF. 120.—A Verb whose Past Tense is not made by the addition of d or ed to the Radical, is **Irregular** in Conjugation.

Examples.—Present Tense.—I am, see, do, hide, lay, Past Tense.—I was, saw, did, hid, laid.

DEF. 121.—A Complete Verb is a Verb that has an appropriate form for all the Modes and Tenses.

EXAMPLES.-Love-Recite-See-Teach.

REM.—Some Irregular Verbs are not used in all the Modes and Tenses: Hence,

DEF. 122.—A **Defective Verb** is a Verb that is not used in all the Modes and Tenses.

LIST.

Present.—Can, may, must, ought, shall, will, Past.—Could, might, — ought, quoth, should, would.

DEF. 123.—A **Redundant Verb** is a Verb that has more than one form for some of the Modes and Tenses.

EXAMPLES.—Am or be—Break, broke or brake, broken or broke.

DEF. 124.—The Verb be and some of its compounds are, by most Grammarians, called **Neuter Verbs**.

EXAMPLES.—I am—He is—John became wise, Cuba belongs to Spain.

Obs. 1.—Some authors include, with the above, an extended list of Verbs that do not predicate physical or mental acts.

But,

- OBS. 2.—The term Neuter Verb seems properly to apply only to the Verb be, and its equivalents. The term Copulative Verb is applied to it by many authors. As this Verb is recognized by either name, our chief concern should be its use. It is used,
 - 1st. In Predicate alone, to declare simple existence.
 - 2d. To connect its Subject to an Attribute:-i. e., to change an Assumed Attribute to a Predication.
 - 3d. To form—with a Past Participle—the Passive Voice.

Two was no

1.	I am-Thou art-He is.	MARKITES.	
2.	Assumed.—Singing. Asserted.—Anna is singing.	Cheerful Dora. Dora is cheerful.	Our friends. They are our friends.
3.	Active.—Dora loves Anna. Passive.—Anna is loved.	Cæsar conquered Gaul. Gaul was conquered.	We have seen him. He has been seen.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.
PAGE
111. What is a Verb? Give ExamplesSee Def. 112.
How are Verbs distinguished?See Rem.
112. What is a Finite Verb? Give Examples See Def. 113.
A Finite Verb must always be associated with
what?See Obs. 1.
What is an Infinitive Verb? Give Examples See Def. 114.
In what connection are Infinitive Verbs used? See Obs. 2.
113. What is a Transitive Verb? Give Examples. See Def. 115.
What is an Intransitive Verb? Give Examples. See Def. 116.
May some Verbs be used Transitively or Intran-
sitively? Give ExamplesSee Obs. 1.
How do we decide that a Verb is Transitive?See Obs. 2.
What is a Principal Verb? Give Examples See Def. 117.
What is an Auxiliary Verb? Give Examples . See Def. 118.
Give the LIST of Verbs that are always Auxiliary.
Give the LIST of Verbs that are sometimes Principal.
114. What Verbs are said to be Regular? Give Ex. See Def. 119.
What Verbs are Irregular? Give Examples See Def. 120.
What Verbs are said to be Complete? Give
ExamplesSee Def. 121.

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	What Verbs are said to be Defective? Give
	ExamplesSee Def. 122.
	What Verbs are said to be Redundant?See Def. 123.
	What is said of the Neuter Verb?See Def. 124.
115.	Why is the Verb be called Copulative?See Obs. 1.
	What distinct offices does this Verb perform?See Obs. 2.

MODIFICATION OF VERBS.

REM.—Verbs that denote action, have two methods of representing the action—

1st—As done by its Subject—as, Clara loves Anna. 2d—As done to its Subject—as, Anna is loved by Clara.

Hence,

Transitive Verbs have two Voices, The Active and The Passive.

DEF. 125.—A Verb in the **Active Voice** represents its Subject as performing an action.

EXAMPLE.—Columbus discovered America.

DEF. 126.—A Verb in the **Passive Voice** represents its Subject as being acted upon.

EXAMPLE.—America was discovered by Columbus.

Obs. 1.—The same fact may commonly be expressed by either the Active or the Passive form.

EXAMPLES.—William assists Charles.
Charles is assisted by William.

"William," the Subject of the Active Verb, becomes the Object of "by," when the Verb becomes Passive; and "Charles," the Object of the Active Verb, becomes the Subject of the Passive.

Obs. 2.—In the English language, the formation of the Passive Voice is less simple than in many other languages. Thus, the corresponding assertions,

In Latin.—Doceo, in the Active Voice, has Doceor in the Passive. In English.—I teach, " " " Iam taught " "

Hence, the English Verb does not form its Passive Voice by an "inflection of the form of the Active," but by combining the

Copulative Verb be, in its various modifications, with a Participle of the given Verb.

EXAMPLES.

Active.—To see, I love, They applaud, Man worships,
Passive.—To be seen, I am loved, They are applauded, God is worshipped.

OBS. 3.—Thus it appears that, in English, the Passive form of a Verb rejects the Verb itself,—only its Participle being retained.

Obs. 4.—Most Transitive Verbs may take the Passive form.

OBS. 5.—A Verb taking the Passive form becomes grammatically intransitive. The action is directed to no Object. The Subject receives the action.

OBS. 6.—But few Intransitive Verbs take the Passive form.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. We laughed at his clownish performances.—(Active Intransitive.)
- 2. His clownish performance was laughed at.—(Passive.)

REM.—Expressions like the last are inelegant, and should not be used except in colloquial style.

MODE.

REM.—In addition to their primary signification, Verbs perform a secondary office—i. e., they indicate some attendant or qualifying circumstances. This is indicated by the variations of the form of the Verb, or by prefixing Auxiliary Words.

Def. 127.—Mode means manner or method. In Grammar, **Mode** is a property of the Verb which indicates the manner of its use.

- 1. A Finite Verb may simply express a fact.
- 2. It may express a fact as possible, probable, obligatory, &c.
- 3. It may express a fact conditionally.
- 4. It may express a command or request.
- 5. It may express the *name* of an act, or a fact unlimited by a Subject. Hence,

Finite Verbs have five modes of expressing their signification—

The Indicative, The Subjunctive, The Potential, The Imperative, and The Infinitive.

DEF. 128.—A Verb used simply to indicate or assert a fact, is in the

Indicative Mode.

EXAMPLES.-1. "God created the heaven and the earth."

2. "Rays of limpid light gleamed round their path."

OBS.—"A conditional circumstance assumed as a fact" is properly expressed by a verb in the Indicative form.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.-1. If Frank tells the truth, the fault is not his.

2. If you will go, I will accompany you.

Incorrect.-8. If Arthur be innocent, he should not be punished.

4. If he be right, I am wrong.

DEF. 129.—A Verb indicating probability, power, will, or obligation, of its Subject, is in the

Potential Mode.

OBS. 1.—Words which may be regarded as signs of the Potential Mode, are, may—might—can—could—must—shall—should—will—would, either alone, or followed by the Word have.

Examples.—I may go—You might have gone—John should study—Mary can learn—It could not be done—John shall study.

Obs. 2.—Verbs in the *Indicative* and the *Potential* Modes may be used in Interrogative Sentences. (See p. 27.)

Examples.—1. "Did Claudius waylay Milo ?"

2. "May one be pardoned and retain the offense?"

DEF. 130.—A Verb expressing a fact conditionally (hypothetically) is in the

Subjunctive Mode.

Example.—" If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes."

OBS.—If, though, unless, and other Conjunctions, are commonly used with the Subjunctive Mode. But they are not to be regarded as the signs of this Mode, for they are also used with the Indicative and with the Potential.

EXAMPLES.—1. If the boat goes to-day, I shall go in it.

2. I would stay, if I could conveniently.

The condition expressed by "if the boat goes," is assumed as a fact—hence, "goes" is in the Indicative Mode.

NOTE.—The Subjunctive Mode is limited to Auxiliary Adverbial Sentences. Whereas the Indicative and the Potential may be used in either Principal or Auxiliary Sentences.

Def. 131.—A Verb used to command or entreat is in

Imperative Mode.

EXAMPLES.-1. "If he repent, forgive him."

2. " Come to the bridal chamber, Death!"

OBS.—As we can command only a person or a thing addressed, the Subject of an Imperative Verb must be of the Second Person; and, as a person addressed is supposed to be present to the speaker, the name of the Subject is usually understood.

Examples.-1. Cry aloud-spare not,-obey your parents.

2. " Speak gently to the little child."

But it is often expressed,

"Go ye into all the world."

Der. 132.—A Verb used without limitation by a Subject, is in the

Infinitive Mode.

Obs. 1.—The Preposition to, is usually placed before the Infinitive Verb.

EXAMPLES.—1. " To enjoy is to obey."

2. " I came not here to talk."

OBS. 2.—But that Word is sometimes suppressed.

EXAMPLE.—" Let me hear thy voice awake, and bid her Give me new and glorious hopes."

Note.—The Infinitive differs from the other Modes in this:—It has no Grammatical Subject, and therefore it can not be a Predicate. It is used, not as an element in a Sentence, but as a constituent element in an Infinitive Phrase—the Subsequent. It is analogous to a

Participle, participating of the properties of a Verb and also of a Substantive-always the Object of the Preposition to expressed or implied.

Formerly, in our English Dictionaries, the Preposition to was

placed before words to indicate that they were Verbs.

This practice of Lexicographers—now obsolete—led some Grammarians into the error of regarding the Preposition to, placed before a Verb in the Infinitive Mode, as a part of the Verb.

But that Preposition is no more a part of the Verb than is the Preposition for a part of the Participle or of the Noun following, as shown in the following

Examples.-1. We are prepared to recite.

- 2. We are prepared for reciting.
- 3. We are prepared for recitation.

REM.—The Infinitive is not improperly called a species of Participle:—always participating of the properties of a Verb and also of a Substantive.

OBS. 3.—While the Infinitive Verb always has a Substantive character, the Phrase of which it is a part may be, in office,

Substantive .- " To err is human." Adjective.—They had a mind to work. Adverbial. - John is eager to learn. Independent .- " To sleep ! perchance to dream."

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

PAGE 116. When is a Verb said to be in the Active Voice?.. See Def. 125. When is a Verb said to be in the Passive Voice?. See Def. 126. Can the same fact be asserted in either form?....See Obs. 1. Give Examples of the changes of Active to Passive. What Auxiliary Verb is used to form the Passive Verb?......See Obs. 2. What part of the Principal Verb is retained in the Passive? See Obs. 3. 117. What class of Verbs may take the Passive form?.. See Obs. 4. What is Mode in Grammar?.....See Def. 127. How many different Modes,—and what?.....See Prin.

118. When is a Verb in the Indicative Mode?..... See Def. 128. Make a Sentence whose Verb shall be in the Indicative. When is a Verb in the Potential Mode?......See Def. 129. What words are used as Signs of the Potential Mode?

•						
PAGE						
118. Make Sentences whose Verbs shall be in the Potential Mode.						
The Verbs in Interrogative Sentences may be in						
what Modes?See Obs. 2.						
When is a Verb in the Subjunctive Mode?See Def. 130						
What Conjunctions introduce Subjunctive Sen-						
tences ? See Obs.						
119. What sort of Sentence has its Verb in the Sub-						
junctive Mode?See Note.						
Make a Sentence whose Verb is in the Subjunctive Mode.						
When is a Verb in the Imperative Mode? See Def. 131						
Make a Sentence whose Verb is in the Imperative Mode.						
What is said of the Subject of an Imperative Sen-						
tence?See Obs.						
When is a Verb in the Infinitive Mode?See Def. 132						
What commonly precedes the Infinitive Verb?See Obs. 1.						
Wherein does the Infinitive Mode differ from the						
other Modes?See Note.						
Does the Infinitive occur in Sentences or in						
Phrases?See Note.						
120. Wherein does the Infinite resemble the Participle?. See Note.						
What are the two offices performed by the Infinitive Verb?						
What different offices may Infinitive Phrases per-						
form?See Obs. 3.						
Make a Sentence having an Infinitive Phrase as its Subject.						
Make an Infinitive Phrase, and use it as an Adjective.						
. " " " " " " " " " " " " " A dverb.						
Adverb.						
" " " Independently.						

PARTICIPLES.

REM.—In the three Sentences,

- 1. Birds sing,
- 2. Birds are singing,
- 8. Singing birds delight us,

the Word "sing" (in Example 1) is a Verb—used to assert an act of "birds."

In Example 2, "singing" is derived from the same Verb; and with the aid of the Auxiliary Verb "are," it makes the same assertion.

In Example 3, "singing" does not assert, but it assumes the same act.

The same signification remains in the three Words, while they perform different grammatical offices. Hence,

DEF. 133.—A **Participle** is a Word derived from a Verb, retaining the signification of its Verb, while it also performs the office of some other "part of speech."

Obs.—Participles are Derivative Words, formed from their Radicals—commonly by the addition of ing or ed.

Examples.—Be...being. Love...loving...loved.

Have...having. Walk....walking...walked.

Rem.—A Participle is used with or without an Auxiliary prefixed. Hence,

Participles are { Simple or Compound.

DEF. 134.—A Simple Participle is a single Word derived from its Verb.

EXAMPLES.-Loving, loved-having, had-being, been.

DEF. 135.—A Compound Participle consists of a Simple Participle, with the Auxiliary Participles "having" or "being," or "having been."

EXAMPLES.

Simple	1. Loving	Fearing. Feared.
Compound	3. Being loved	Being fearedHaving fearedHaving been fearedHaving been fearing.

Participles are distinguished as {1. Present, 2. Prior Present, 3. Past.

DEF. 136.—The **Present Participle** is the Participle formed by adding *ing* to the root of the Verb—indicating a present act, being, or state.

Examples.—Being—having—loving—walking—doing—fearing.

Obs.—When the Participle is used with a Verb, the time is indicated by the Verb, and may be Present, Past, or Future.

EXAMPLES.—Present.—I am writing letters.

Past.—I was writing letters.

Future.—I shall be writing letters.

DEF. 137.—A **Past Participle** is the Participle that is regularly formed by adding *ed* to the root of its Verb.

Examples.—Loved—feared—hated—respected.

- Obs. 1.—The Past Participles of Irregular Verbs are variously formed. [See List.]
- Obs. 2.—The Past Participle may be used with a Verb indicating time, *Present*, *Past*, or *Future*.

Obs. 3.—The Present Participle is commonly Active in signification.

EXAMPLES.-1. A falling leaf.-2. A fading flower.

"Scaling yonder peak,
 I saw an eagle, wheeling near its brow."

OBS. 4.—The Past Participle is commonly Passive in signification.

EXAMPLES.-1. Injured reputation.-2. Lost opportunity.

3. "Truth crushed to earth, will rise again."

OBS. 5.—A Past Participle, preceded by the Auxiliary having, is used actively.

Examples.-1. Having loved.-2. Having lost a day.

- 8. "The hour having arrived, we commenced the exercises."
- 4. Having seen the elephant, the rustic was satisfied.
- Obs. 6.—Preceded by the Auxiliary being, or having been, the Past Participle is used passively.

EXAMPLES. -1. Being loved.

Having been censured for idleness, John resolved to be diligent.

REM.—The above and similar combinations of the Present Participle with the Past, indicate Prior Present Tonse. Hence,

Def. 138.—A **Prior Present Participle** is a Participle compounded of a Present and a Past Participle.

Obs. 7.—A Compound Participle may be Present or Prior Present
—Active or Passive.

EXAMPLES.—Present.—Being loved	Being seen.
Prior Present.—Having loved	Having seen.
Action Having loved	Having seen.
Active. { Having loved	Having been seeing.
Being loved	Being seen.
Passive. Being loved	Having been seen.

Obs. 8.—The term Participle is given to these words because they participate in the offices of two "parts of speech" at the same time:—that of the Verbs from which they are derived, and also of Nouns, of Adjectives, of Adverbs, of Prepositions, of Conjunctions—in Predicats with Auxiliary Verbs, or to introduce Participial Phrases.

EXAMPLES.

Obs. 9.—Participles, like the Verbs from which they are derived, are *Transitive* or *Intransitive*.

DEF. 139.—A **Transitive Participle** is a Participle that has an Object.

Example.—"Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle Wheeling near its brow."

Def. 140.—An **Intransitive Participle** is a Participle that has no Object.

Example.—"I saw an eagle wheeling near its brow."

Obs. 10.—A Participle used as a Preposition, must be Transitive EXAMPLE.—"I speak concerning Christ and the Church."

Obs. 11.—A Participle used as a Noun, as an Adjective, or in Predicate, or as the Leader of a Participial Phrase, may be Intransitive or Transitive.

EXAMPLES.

(a.) Intransitive.

- 1. Noun......... "Scolding has long been considered ungenteel."
- 2. Adjective....." The curfew tolls the knell of parting day."
- 3. In Predicate..." Spring-time of year is coming."

(b.) Transitive.

- 4. Substantive.... Teaching Clara, is a pleasing occupation.
- 5. Adjective "Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle." ..
- 6. In Predicate...We are studying grammar.

Obs. 12.—A Participle used as a Conjunction or as an Adverb must be Intransitive.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Wherefore is there a price in the hands of a fool to get wisdom, seeing he hath no heart to it."

2. "A virtuous household, but exceeding poor."

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

	QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.
PAGE	•
121.	What is a Participle? Give ExamplesSee Def. 133.
	What sort of Words are Participles?
	Wherein do they resemble Verbs?See Obs.
	Wherein do they differ from their Verbs?See Obs.
	How many sorts of Participles?See Prin.
122.	What is a Simple Participle? Give Examples. See Def. 134.
	What is a Compound Participle? Give Ex-
	amples
	In Tenses, how are Participles distinguished?See Prin.
	What is a Present Participle? Give Examples. See Def. 136.
123.	What is a Past Participle? Give Examples See Def. 137.
	Which Participle is generally Active in its signi-
	fication?See Obs. 3.
	Which Participle is generally Passive in signifi-
	cation ?See Obs. 4.
	When may a Past Participle be used Actively?. See Obs. 5.
	What is a Prior Present Participle? Give
	ExamplesSee Def. 138.
124 .	For what Parts of Speech may Participles be
	used? See Obs. 8.
	Make a Sentence having a Participle for its Subject.
	" " " " Object.

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PAGE		~ .				
124.	Make a Sentence having a Participle as an Adjective.					
	"	66	"	"	46	Adverb.
	"	"	"	66	as a	Preposition.
	"	46	66	44	66	Conjunction.
	"	"	46	"	in P	redicate.
	"	Phrase	44	66	as its	Leader.
	66	66	4.	"	66	Subsequent.
125.		respect to O			-	es dis- See Obs. 9.
	What	is a Transit	ive Pa	articiple?	Give I	ExSee Def. 139.
						Ex. See Def. 140.
	"	"	<i>may</i> b	e Transitiv	e or I	
	si	tive ?				See Obs. 11.
	What	Participles	must be	Intransitiv	e ?	See Obs. 12.

TENSE.

REM.—Generally the form of the Verb denotes not only the *manner*, but also the *time*, of the action or event expressed by it. Hence the distinction of Tense.

DEF. 141.—**Tense** is a modification of Verbs, denoting distinction of *time*.

REM.—Time is *Present*, *Past*, or *Future*: of each of these periods we have two varieties, represented by different forms. Hence,

•	The Prior Past Tense,
	The Past Tense,
Most Verbs have six	The Prior Present Tense,
Tenses	The Prior Past Tense, The Past Tense, The Prior Present Tense, The Present Tense, The Prior Future Tense,
	The Prior Future Tense,
	The Future Tense.

DEF. 142.—The **Prior Past Tense** denotes time past at some other past time mentioned, or implied.

Example.—I had already expressed my opinion.

Obs. 1.—Had, prefixed to a Participle, is usually the sign of this Tense,—A Past Verb prefixed to a Past Participle.

Obs. 2.—This Tense is called *Prior Past*, because it represents an action or event as occurring at a time *prior* to another past time mentioned or implied.

DEF. 143.—A Verb in the **Past Tense** denotes time fully past.

Examples.—I wrote you a letter.—We walked to Troy
I saw an eagle.—David loved Jonathan.

OBS.—In Regular Verbs, the sign of this Tense is d or ed added to the root of the Verb.

In Irregular Verbs, a distinct form is used. [See List.]

DEF. 144.—The **Prior Present Tense** denotes time past, but in a period reaching to the present.

EXAMPLES.—I have completed my task.—John has returned.

Mary has been prospered.—Thou hast destroyed thyself.

- OBS. 1.—Have, hast, and has, are the signs of this Tense,—A Present Verb prefixed to a Past Participle.
- Obs. 2.—This Tense is called *Prior Present*, because it represents an action or event as occurring at a time *prior* to the present, yet in a period reaching to the present.
 - DEF. 145.—The **Present Tense** denotes time present. EXAMPLES.—Eliza studies.—Ellen is reading.—Clara can sing.

Do you hear that bell ?- Emily may write that diagram.

- Obs. 1.—This is the simplest form of the Verb—the sign do is used to denote intensity, and in asking questions.
 - OBS. 2.—Present Tense may be—
 - 1. Definite—as, I am writing.—William studies
 - 2. Indefinite-as, Virtue is commendable.
- Def. 146.—The **Prior Future Tense** denotes time past, as compared with some future time specified.

EXAMPLE.—We shall have finished this recitation before the next class will come.

- Obs. 1.—Shall have and will have, are the signs of this Tense,—Verbs of Future Tense prefixed to a Past Participle.
- Obs. 2.—This Tense is named *Prior Future*, because it represents an action or event as having occurred at a time *prior* to some future time expressed or implied.
- DEF. 147.—The **Future Tense** denotes future time, as compared with the present.

Example.—James will return to-morrow—I shall see him.

OBS.—Shall, in the First Person, and will, in the Second and Third, are the signs of this Tense.

REM.—Distinctions of time are not indicated with precision by the form of the Verb. This must be done by the use of Adjuncts.

In the Potential Mode the Tenses are quite Indefinite—one form being often used for another. [See p. 999.]

The same remarks will apply to Participles—to the Infinitive, to the Subjunctive, and sometimes to the Indicative Mode.

RECAPITULATION.

Voice.	Mode.	Tense.
	(Indicative	Prior Past, Past, Prior Present, Present, Prior Future, Future.
VERB { ACTIVE }	Potential	Prior Past, Past, Prior Present, Present.
NEUTER	Subjunctive	Past, Present.
	Imperative	Present.
	Infinitive	Prior Present, Present.
	Participle	Past, Prior Present, Present.
_	FOR REVIEW.	

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

PAGE	
126.	What is Tense?See Def. 141.
	What natural divisions of time?See Rem.
	How many forms for each division?
	How many Tenses have most English Verbs?
	Name the Tenses in their natural order.
	When is a Verb in the Prior Past Tense? See Def. 142.
	What Auxiliary Verb is used as the sign of this
	Tense?See Obs. 1.
	Why is this Tense named Prior Past?See Obs. 2.

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127.	When is a Verb in the Past Tense?See Def. 143.
	In Regular Verbs, how is this Tense formed?See Obs.
	In Irregular Verbs, how is this Tense formed?
	When is a Verb in the Prior Present Tense? See Def. 144.
	Why is this Tense named Prior Present?See Obs. 2.
÷	What Auxiliary Verbs are the signs of this
	Tense ? See Obs. 1.
	When is a Verb in the Present Tense?See Def. 145.
	What Auxiliary may a Verb in this Tense have?. See Obs. 1.
	How make this Tense Definite?—How Indefi-
	nite ?See Obs. 2.
	When is a Verb in the Prior Future Tense? See Def. 146.
	Why is this Tense named Prior Future?
	What Auxiliary Verbs are used as the signs of
	this Tense?See Obs. 1.
	When is a Verb in the Future Tense?See Def. 147.
128.	What Auxiliary Verbs are signs of this Tense? . See Obs.
	Do the forms of Verbs always indicate distinc-
	tions of time with precision?See Rem.
	By what means can we make distinctions of time
	more definite?See Rem.

EXERCISES.

Let each Verb and Participle in the following Exercises be pointed out, and its Class and Modification given.

- 1. I wrote.
- 2. Thou art reading.
- 3. James may recite.
- 4. Mary can study.
- 5. Joining the multitude.
- 6. Accustomed to study.
- 12. Let me go. 13. It is pleasant to ride in a sail-boat.
- 14. We are all fond of singing.
- 15. Some are accustomed to sing by note.
- 16. The young ladies ought to have attended the lecture.
- 17. By teaching others, we improve ourselves.
- 18. Being accustomed to study, we can learn that lesson easily.
- 19. Having been censured for idleness, John has resolved to be diligent
- 20. By endeavoring to please all, we fail to please any.

7. Willing to be taught. 8. Having seen the teacher.

11. Permit me to pass.

9. Retire. 10. Let us alone. "Truth crushed to earth, will rise again;
The eternal years of God are hers:
But Error, wounded, writhes in pain,
And dies amid her worshippers."

Let the Verbs and Participles on this and the preceding page be parsed according to the following

MODEL.

- Crushed is [a Participle, from the Verb crush;] used here to describe a condition of "Truth;" hence, a Verbal Adjective.
- Will rise....asserts an act of "Truth;" hence, a Verb.
 - "has no object; hence, Intransitive.
 - "simply declares; hence, Indicative Mode.
 - "denotes time future; hence, Future Tense.
- Are asserts being of "years;" hence, a Verb.
- "......has no object; hence, Intransitive.
- "simply declares; hence, Indicative Mode.
- "denotes time present; hence, Present Tense.
- Wounded...is [a *Participle*, from the Verb wound;] used here to describe a condition of "Error;" hence a Verbal Adjective.
- Writhes asserts an act of "Error;" hence, a Verb.
 - "has no object; hence, Intransitive.
 - "simply declares; hence, Indicative Mode.
 - "denotes time present; hence, Present Tense.
 - "The surging billows and the gamboling storms Come crouching to his feet."
- Surging.....is [a Participle, from the Verb surge;] used here to describe "billows;" hence, a Verbal Adjective.
- Gamboling . . is [a *Participle*, from the Verb *gambol*;] used here to describe "storms;" hence, a Verbal Λdjective.
- Come......asserts an act of "billows" and "storms;" hence, a Verb.
 - "has no object; hence, Intransitive.
 - "simply declares; hence, Indicative Mode.
 - "denotes time present; hence, Present Tense.
- Crouching...is [a Participle, from the Verb crouch;] used here to modify the act expressed by "come;"
 - " ...(it declares the manner of coming;) hence, an Adverb by representation. [See p. 159, Obs. 2.]

"In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth."

Beginning...is [a Participle, from the Verb begin;] used here as the name of an event; hence, a Verbal Noun.

Createdasserts an act of "God;" hence, a Verb.

- "act passes to objects (heaven and earth)—Transitive.
- "simply declares; hence, Indicative Mode.
- "denotes a particular time past; hence, Past Tense.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

REM.—We have seen that most Verbs are varied in form to denote different *modes* and *times* of action or being. They are also varied to agree with their subjects in *Person* and *Number*.

DEF. 148.—The regular arrangement of the various forms of a Verb is called its Conjugation.

THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF VERBS.

DEF. 149.—The **Principal Parts** of a Verb are those Radical forms from which the other forms are derived.

OBS.—These forms are used in the

Present Tense,	Past Tense,	Present Tense,	Past Tense,
Am,	was,	Recite,	recit <i>ed</i> ,
Love,	loved,	See,	saw,

and, together with the Simple Participles, constitute the

Bases of Conjugation.

REM.—We have seen [See Part I., p. 31]—

- 1. That the *Predicate* of a Sentence must have at least one Finite Verb.
- 2. That it may have other Words.
- That in Predicates formed of more than one Word, the last Word constitutes the Principal Part of the Predicate, i. e., makes the Principal Assertion.
- That the Principal Part of a Predicate may be—
 A Verb.—I love.—I do see.
 A Participle.—I am loved.—I have seen.

An Adjective.—John is weary.—Velvet feels smooth.

- A Noun.—We are friends.—He is a scholar.
- A Pronoun.—It is I.—Thine is the kingdom.
- 5. That the Words prefixed to the Principal Part are Auxiliaries, and may be Verbs only, or Verbs and Participles. Hence.
- Obs. 1.—Verbs are conjugated—
 - 1. By inflections of their Radicals, and
 - 2. By the use of Auxiliary Verbs.
- Obs. 2.—Auxiliaries perform peculiar offices, thus,

Be, with its various modifications, is used before a Past Participle to indicate the Passive Voice.

EXAMPLES.-1. Clara mas instructed.

2. Anna has been complimented.

Can, may, must, shall (used to command), and will (signifying volition), indicate the Present Tense of the Potential Mode. Could, might, should, and would, are the signs of the Past Tense Potential.

Do Did	[2]	Present Tense, Indicative-intensive form.	I do see. I did see.
Have		Prior Present Tense, Indicative.	I have seen.
Had	크	Frior Past Tense, "	I had seen.
May have	18	Prior Present Tense, Potential. Prior Past Tense, "	I may have seen.
Might have	3	Prior Past Tense,	I might have seen.
Shall	9	Future Indicative* (First Person).	I shall ree.
Will !	ر س ا	Future Indicative* (Second or Third Person.)	You will see.

* The Future and the Prior Future Tenses are placed in the Indicative Mode. in conformity to the general custom of grammarians. A strict regard to uniformity and consistency would place them with their kindred forms in the Potential Mode. For.

The "Indicative Mode is that form of the Verb used to indicate or assert an act, being, or state." Now a thing future may be predicted, but can not be declared or asserted. We may declare a purpose or make a prediction. So may we declare the possibility of an act, or the obliquion to perform an act. But these are done by a modification of the Predicate, called Potential Mode.

In the Sentence "I shall go," we have asserted a prediction of an act.
" I may go," we have asserted a probability of an act.

"I can go," we have asserted a possibility of an act.

"I should go," asserts obligation to perform an act.

"I might go," asserts liberty to perform an act.

"I could go," asserts power to perform an act.

Neither of the above assertions declares the performance of an act. They assert "probability, power, will, or obligation," but no actual event.

The Potential Present and Past alike assert a present probability, prediction, possibility, etc., of a future act or event.

EXERCISES

Showing the peculiar uses of Auxiliary Verbs.

(1.)PREDICATE. SUBJECT. Principal. Auxiliaries. 8 5 Person. Mode. Voice. am have been was had been shall be shall have been may be have been be might have been (2.)admitted. been was been be have been be been have been

Let the Pupil substitute for the Word "John" the following Subjects, and notice what changes in the various Auxiliary Verbs must consequently be made. Thus,

I requires (am—have—shall—shall have.)

Thou " (art-hast-hadst-wilt-mayst-mightst.)

They " (are—have.) People " (are—have.)

He " (is-has-will-will have.)

Hence,

Obs.—The practical object of the following Paradigms is to teach the Pupil what are the various changes in the form of the Predicate to correspond to the Subject, and to indicate the various Modes, Tenses, Persons, and Numbers.

PARADIGM OF THE IRRE	GULAR VERB " 196."
Verb.	PARTICIPLE.
PRESENT.—Am or be	a being.
	_
Past.— Was	been.
INDICATIVE	E MODE.
Present 7	l'ense.
Singular Number.	Plural Number.
First Person I am.	We are,
Second " { Thou art, You are,	Ye are, You are,
Second You are,	You are,
Third " He is,	They are.
Prior Presen	t Tense.
1. I have been,	We have been,
Thou hast been.	Ye have been.
2. You have been,	Ye have been, You have been,
3. He has been,	They have been.
Past Te	nse.
1. I was,	We were,
2. { Thou wast, You was,* or were,	∫ Ye were,
". (You was,* or were,	You were,
s. He was,	They were.
Prior Past	Tense.
1. I had been,	We had been,
2. You had been,	Ye had been, You had been,
You had been,	You had been,
3. He had been,	They had been
Future T	
1. I shall be,	We shall be,
2. { Thou wilt be, You will be,	§ Ye will be,
You will be,	You will be,
3. He will be,	They will be.
Prior Future	Tense.
1. I shall have been,	We shall have been,
2. Thou wilt have been, You will have been,	Ye will have been,
". You will have been,	You will have been,

^{*} The word you—originally Plural—is now used as Singular or Plural. Some Grammarians insist that "you, though applied to a single person, requires a Plural Verb; as, you were, not you was." (See Buchanan's Gr., p. 37; Brown's, p. 528.)

He will have been,

They will have been.

ral Verb; as, you were, not you was." (See Buchanan's Gr., p. 37; Brown's, p. 528.)

Other authors insist that "the Verb must follow the Nominative—if that denotes unity, so does the Verb."—"Why was you glad?" (See Frazes's Grammar, p. 52; Webster's Grammar, p. 52.)

In practice, our best British and American writers disagree, as do the Grammarians.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Prese	-+	ma	 _

Tiesent Tem				
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.			
1. I may be,	We may be,			
2. Thou mayst be, You may be,	Ye may be,			
You may be,	You may be,			
3. He may be,	They may be.			
Prior Present T	ense.			
1. I may have been,	We may have been,			
2. { Thou mayst have been, You may have been,	Ye may have been, You may have been,			
You may have been,	You may have been,			
3. He may have been,	They may have been.			
Past Tense				
1. I might be,	We might be,			
Thou mightst be.	(Ye might be.			
2. { Thou mightst be, You might be,	Ye might be, You might be,			
3. He might be,	They might be.			
Prior Past Te	• •			
	·			
1. I might have been,	We might have been,			
2. { Thou mightst have been, You might have been,	Ye might have been,			
9 We might have been,	You might have been, They might have been.			
3. He might have been,	They might have been.			
SUBJUNCTIVE	MODE.			
Present Tens				
1. If I be, If we be,				
(If thou be.	(If ve be.			
2. If thou be, If you be,	{ If ye be, { If you be,			
3. If he be,	If they be.			
Past Tense.				
1. If I were,	If we were,			
(If then wert	(If we were			
2. If thou wert, If you were,	If ye were, If you were,			
8. If he were,	(11) (11 (11 (11 (11 (11 (11 (
	If they were.			
•	If they were.			
IMPERATIVE I	If they were.			
•	If they were. MODE.			
IMPERATIVE I	If they were. MODE.			
IMPERATIVE I	If they were. MODE.			
IMPERATIVE I Present Tens 2. { Be thou, or } Do thou be,	If they were. MODE. Se. Be ye, or Do ye be, Be you, or Do you be.			
IMPERATIVE I Present Tens 2. { Be thou, or Do thou be, INFINITIVE M	If they were. MODE. Se. Be ye, or Do ye be, Be you, or Do you be. IODE.			
IMPERATIVE I Present Tens 2. { Be thou, or } INFINITIVE M Present Tense	If they were. MODE. Se. Be ye, or Do ye be, Be you, or Do you be. MODE. TO DE.			
IMPERATIVE I Present Tens 2. { Be thou, or Do thou be, INFINITIVE M Present Tense	If they were. MODE. Be, Be ye, or Do ye be, Be you, or Do you be. MODE. To be. To have been.			
IMPERATIVE I Present Tens 2. { Be thou, or Do thou be, INFINITIVE M Present Tense	If they were. MODE. Be, Be ye, or Do ye be, Be you, or Do you be. MODE. To be. To have been.			
IMPERATIVE I Present Tens 2. { Be thou, or Do thou be, INFINITIVE M Present Tense Prior Present Tense PARTICIPLE Present	If they were. MODE. Be, or Do ye be, Be you, or Do you be. MODE. To be. To have been. Being.			
IMPERATIVE I Present Tens 2. { Be thou, or Do thou be, INFINITIVE M Present Tense	If they were. MODE. Se. Be ye, or Do ye be, Be you, or Do you be. MODE. To be. To have been. S. Being. Been.			

FORMULÆ OF REGULAR VERBS.

TRANSITIVE VERB—"Recite."

ACTIVE VOICE.

The Principal Parts of this Verb are—

	VERB.	PARTICIPLE.
Present Tense	Recite	Reciting.
Past Tense	.Recited	Recited.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense

riesent rense.			
SIMPLE FORM.	Progressive Form.		
Sn	NGULAR.		
1. I recite, 2. { Thou recitest, You recite, He recites,	I am reciting, Thou art reciting, You are reciting, He is reciting.		
P	LURAL.		
1. We recite, 2. Ye recite, You recite, They recite,	We are reciting, Ye are reciting, You are reciting, They are reciting.		
Prior P	resent Tense.		

SINGULAR.

SINGULA	246
 I have recited, Thou hast recited, You have recited, He has recited, 	I have been reciting, Thou hast been reciting, You have been reciting, He has been reciting.
Plurai	L.

 We have recited,
 Ye have recited,
 You have recited,
 They have recited, We have been reciting, Ye have been reciting, You have been reciting, They have been reciting.

Past Tense.

1.	T	recited.
	_	TCCIOCO

2. { Thou recitedst, You recited,

He recited.

We recited,

2. Ye recited, You recited,

3. They recited.

SINGULAR. I was reciting.

> Thou wast reciting, You was or were reciting.

He was reciting.

PLUBAL.

We were reciting, Ye were reciting,

You were reciting, They were reciting.

Prior Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I had recited, 2. Thou hadst recited, You had recited,

3. He had recited.

We had recited.

2. Ye had recited, You had recited, They had recited,

I had been reciting, Thou hadst been reciting,

You had been reciting. He had been reciting.

PLURAL.

We had been reciting, Ye had been reciting,

You had been reciting, They had been reciting.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.

I shall recite, 2. Thou wilt recite, You will recite,

3. He will recite.

We shall recite,

2. Ye will recite, You will recite,

They will recite,

PLURAL.

We shall be reciting. Ye will be reciting.

I shall be reciting,

Thou wilt be reciting You will be reciting,

He will be reciting.

You will be reciting, They will be reciting.

Prior Future Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall have recited,

2. Thou wilt have recited, You will have recited,

3. He will have recited.

I shall have been reciting Thou wilt have been reciting,

You will have been reciting,

He will have been reciting.

PLURAL.

We shall have been reciting,

Ye will have been reciting, You will have been reciting,

They will have been reciting.

Ye will have recited, You will have recited, 3. They will have recited,

We shall have recited,

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense. SINGULAR.

1. I may recite,	1 may of reciung,
Thou mayst recite.	Thou mayst be reciting,
2. You may recite, 2. You may recite,	You may be reciting,
3. He may recite,	He may be reciting.
o. He many loans,	220 may or receiving.
P	LUBAL.
1. We may recite,	We may be reciting,
2. Ye may recite, You may recite,	Ye may be reciting, You may be reciting,
2. You may recite.	You may be reciting,
3. They may recite,	They may be reciting
Prior Pr	resent Tense.
8n	NGULAR.
 I may have recited, 	I may have been reciting,
2. Thou mayst have recited, You may have recited,	Thou mayst have been reciting,
2. You may have recited.	You may have been reciting,
3. He may have recited,	He may have been reciting.
_	
	LURAL.
1. We may have recited,	We may have been reciting
2. Ye may have recited, You may have recited,	Ye may have been reciting,
" (You may have recited,	You may have been reciting,
3. They may have recited,	They may have been reciting.
Pas	it Tense.
	NGULAR.
1. I might recite,	I might be reciting,
(Thou mightet regite	Thou mightst be reciting,
2. You mightst recite You might recite,	Von might he regiting
i ou magne recite,	You might be reciting,
3. He might recite,	He might be reciting.

1. We might recite, Ye might recite,
You might recite,

They might recite,

We might be reciting, Ye might be reciting, You might be reciting, They might be reciting.

Prior Past Tense.

	Sin	GULAR.
2 Thou might have recited, You might have been reciting, B. He might have recited, He might have been reciting.	 I might have recited, Thou mights have recited, You might have recited, 	I might have been reciting, Thou mightet have been reciting, You might have been reciting,
PLUTAL.		

 We might have recited,
 Ye might have recited,
 You might have recited,
 They might have recited, We might have been reciting, Ye might have been reciting,
You might have been reciting, They might have been reciting.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

DIN	GULAR.			
1. If I recite,	If I be reciting,			
(If thou recite,	If thou be reciting,			
2. If thou recite, If you recite,	If you be reciting,			
8. If he recite,	If he be reciting.			
Pı	URAL.			
 If we recite, 	If we be reciting,			
o (If ve recite.	(If we be reciting.			
2. If ye recite, 2. If you recite,	If ye be reciting, If you be reciting,			
3. If they recite,	If they be reciting.			
Past Tense.				
Sin	GULAR.			
1. Though I recited,	Though I were reciting,			
	Though thou wert reciting,			
2. Though thou recited, Though you recited,	Though you were reciting,			
3. Though he recited,	Though he were reciting.			
Pı	URAL.			
1. Though we recited,	Though we were reciting,			
2. Though ye recited, Though you recited,	Though ye were reciting,			
² .) Though you recited,	Though you were reciting,			
3. Though they recited,	Though they were reciting.			

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

		Singular.
2	Recite thou, or Do thou recite,	Se thou reciting, or Do thou be reciting.

2. { Recite ye or you, or { Be ye reciting, or { Do ye be reciting.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present.

To recite, To be reciting.

To have recited, To have been reciting.

PARTICIPLES.

AKTICIPLES

Present. Reciting.

Prior Present.

Having recited, Having been reciting.

PARADIGM OF THE VERB "Love."

ACTIVE VOICE.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Love. Loving.

Loved. Loved.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

	Singular.	
1. I love,		I am loved,
o Thou lovest,		Thou art loved
2. You lovest, You love,		You are loved,
3. He loves.		`He is loved.

•••		-
	PLURAL.	
1. We love,	We are love	eđ.
	(Ye are love	
2. Ye love, You love,	You are lov	
3 They love	They are lo	

Prior Present Tense. SINGULAR.

1. I have loved, 2. You have loved, 3. He has loved		1 have been loved, 5 Thou hast been loved, You have been loved,	
3. He has loved,		He has been loved.	
4 777 1 1 .	PLURAL.		
2. Ye have loved,			
1. We have loved, 2. Ye have loved, 3. They have loved.		We have been loved, Ye have been loved, You have been loved, They have been loved	_

Past Tense.

	Past Tense.
1. I loved, 2. Thou lovedst, You loved, 3. He loved,	Singular. I was loved, I Thou wast loved, You was or were loved, He was loved.
1. We loved, 2. Ye loved, You loved, They loved,	PLURAL. We were loved, Ye were loved, You were loved, They were loved.

Prior Past Tense.

	SINGULAR.	
1. I had loved,		I had been loved,
2. Thou hadst loved, You had loved, 3. He had loved,		Thou hadst been loved, You had been loved, He had been loved.

PLURAL. We had been loved, 1. We had loved, 2. Ye had loved, You had loved, Ye had been loved, You had been loved, 3. They had loved, They had been loved. Future Tense. SINGULAR. 1. I shall love, I shall be loved, 2. { Thou wilt love, You will love, Thou wilt be loved, You will be loved, He will be loved. 3. He will love. PLURAL. 1. We shall love, We shall be loved, 2. Ye will love, You will love, Ye will be loved, You will be loved, They will love, They will be loved. Prior Future Tense. SINGULAR. 1. I shall have loved, I shall have been loved, 2. { Thou wilt have loved, You will have loved, Thou will have been loved, You will have been loved, 3. He will have loved, He will have been loved. PLURAL. 1. We shall have loved, We shall have been loved. 2. Ye will have loved, You will have loved, 3. They will have loved, Ye will have been loved, You will have been loved, They will have been loved. POTENTIAL MODE. Present Tense. SINGULAR. I may love, I may be loved, 2. { Thou mayst love, You may love, Thou mayst be loved, You may be loved, He may be loved. 3. He may love, PLUBAL. We may be loved, We may love, 2. Ye may love, You may love, Ye may be loved, You may be loved, They may be loved.

3. They may love,

Prior Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

- I may have loved,
- 2. { Thou mayst have loved, You may have loved,
- He may have loved,
- - I may have been loved, Thou mayst have been loved,
 - You may have been loved,
 - He may have been loved.

PLURAL.

- We may have loved,
- 2. Ye may have loved, You may have loved,
- They may have loved,
- We may have been loved,
 - Ye may have been loved,
 - You may have been loved, They may have been loved.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

- I might love,
- 2. Thou mightst love You might love,
- 8. He might love,
- I might be loved,
 - Thou mightst be loved,
 - You might be loved, He might be loved.

PLURAL.

- We might love,
- 2. Ye might love, You might love,
- They might love.
- We might be loved,
- Ye might be loved, You might be loved,
 - They might be loved.

Prior Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

- 1. I might have loved,
- 2. { Thou mightst have loved, You might have loved,
- 3. He might have loved,
- I might have been loved,
- Thou mightst have been loved, You might have been loved,
 - He might have been loved.

PLURAL

- We might have loved,
- 2. Ye might have loved, You might have loved,
- - They might have loved,
- We might have been loved,
- Ye might have been loved, You might have been loved,
 - They might have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

- 1. If I love,
 2. If thou love,
 If you love,
- 3. If he love.

- - If I be loved, (If thou be loved,
 - If you be loved.
 - If he be loved.

P	LURAL.
 If we love, 	If we be loved,
	(If ye be loved,
2. If ye love, If you love,	(If you be loved,
3. If they love,	If they be loved.
Pas	t Tense.
Sr	NGULAR.
1. If I loved.	If I were loved,
o (If thou loved,	(If thou wert loved,
2. { If thou loved, If you loved,	If you were loved,
3. If he loved,	If he were loved.
P	LURAL.
 If we loved, 	If we were loved,
o (If ye loved,	(If ye were loved,
2. If ye loved, If you loved,	If ye were loved, If you were loved,
3. If they loved,	If they were loved.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

	Flesent lense.	
1. $\begin{cases} \text{Love thou, } or \\ Do \text{ thou love.} \end{cases}$	Singular. (Be loved, or (Do thou be love	đ.
2. $\begin{cases} \text{Love ye, } or \\ Do \text{ ye love.} \end{cases}$	Plural. \{ \begin{aligned} Be ye loved, or \\ Do ye be loved. \end{aligned}	

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

To love.

To be loved.

Prior Present Tense.

To have loved.

To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present.

Loving.

Being loved.

Prior Present.

Having loved.

Having been loved.

Past. Loved.

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB "Study."

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

First Person.

	DECLARATIVE FORM—Negative.
PRESENT I study I	study not, or I do not study.
Prior Present. I have studiedI	have not studied.
Past I studied I	studied not, or I did not study.
Prior PastI had studiedI	
FUTURE I shall study I	shall not study.
PRIOR FUTURE I shall have studied . I	shall not have studied.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present	may studyI	may not study.
PRIOR PRESENT.	may have studied. I	may not have studied.
Past	[might study]	might not study.
PRIOR PAST	[might have studied.]	might not have studied.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT	If I study	If I study not.
PAST	If I studied	If I studied not

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Second Person.

PRESENT	Study, <i>or</i>	}	Study not, or
"	Study, or Do thou study,	ζ·····	Do not study.

INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT	To	study.	 Not	to	study.
PRIOR PRESENT.					

PARTICIPLES.

SIMPLE	Study <i>ing</i>	Not studying, or studying noNot having studied.	X.
COMPOUND	Having studied.	Not having studied,	

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB "Turn."

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

	DECLARATIVE FORM.	INTERROGATIVE FORM.
PRESENT	I turn	
	TI have turned	
Past	I turned	Did I turn?
PRIOR PAST	I had turned	Had I turned?
FUTURE	I shall turn	Shall I turn?
PRIOR FUTURE	\dots I shall have turned	Shall I have turned?
	POTENTIAL N	MODE.
	I may turn	
		May I have turned?
	I might turn	
PRIOR PAST	I might have turne	d Might I have turned?

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB "Sell."

PASSIVE VOICE.

Sell. Sold.

Selling.

Sold.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Third Person.

	INTERROGATIVE FORM.	Interrogative Form-Negative.
Present	<i>Is</i> it sold ?	Is it not sold?
PRIOR PRESEN	T. Has it been sold?	Has it not been sold?
Past	\dots Was it sold? \dots	Was it not sold?
PRIOR PAST	Had it been sold?	Had it not been sold?
FUTURE	Will it be sold?	Will it not be sold?
PRIOR FUTURE	E Will it have been sol	d? . Will it not have been sold?

POTENTIAL MODE.

Third Person.

PRESENT May it be sold? May it not be sold?
PRIOR PRESENT. May it have been sold? May it not have been sold?
PAST
PRIOR PAST Might it have been sold? Might it not have been sold?

^{*}The Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive Modes are not used in Interrogative Sentences.

PARADIGM OF THE IRREGULAR VERB "See."

See,

Saw

Seeing,

DECLARATIVE FORM.

eeing, Seen.
Interrogative Form.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

1. I see, 2. Thou seest, You see, 3. He sees.		See I? Seest thou See you? Sees he?
•	PLURAL.	
1. We see,		See we?
2. Ye see, You see,		∫ See ye?
Z. You see,	•	See you?
3. They see.	•	See they?

Obs.—The above is the Simple form, which, in Interrogative Sentences, is not much used, the Intensive form being commonly employed. Thus,

Present Tense.

Singular.	
1. I do see,	Do I see?
2. Thou dost see, You do see,	(Dost thou see?
3. He does see.	Do you see? Does he see?
Plural.	
1. We do see,	Do we see?
Ye do see,	(Do ve see?
2. Ye do see, You do see,	$\begin{cases} Do \text{ ye see ?} \\ Do \text{ you see ?} \end{cases}$

Prior Present Tense.

3. They do see.

SINGULAR. 1. I have seen, 2. { Thou hast seen, You have seen, 8. He has seen.	Have I seen? Hast thou seen? Have you seen? Has he seen?
PLURAL. 1. We have seen.	Hane we seen?

1. We have seen,
2. Ye have seen,
3. They have seen.

Have we seen?
4 Have ye seen?
Have you seen?
Have they seen?

Do they see?

Past Tense.—Simple Form.

1. I saw, 2. Thou sawest, You saw,	SINGULAR.	Saw I? Sawest thou? Saw you?
8. He saw.		Saw you?
٠,	PLURAL.	
1. We saw,		Saw we?
2. Ye saw, You saw,		Saw ye?
2. You saw,		Saw you?
3. They saw.		Saw they?

Past Tense.—Intensive Form.

 I did see, Thou didst see, You did see, He did see. 	Singular,	Did I see? { Didst thou see? Did you see? Did he see?
 We did see, Ye did see, You did see, They did see. 	PLURAL.	Did we see? Did ye see? Did you see? Did they see?
		,

Prior Past Tense. Singular.

	Had I seen? Hudst thou seen? Had you seen? Had he seen?
PLURAT.	
	Had we seen?
	§ Had ye seen?
	Had you seen?
	Had they seen?
	PLURAL.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

	Singular.
1. I can see,	Can I see?
o (Thou canst see	, (Canst thou see
2. Thou canst see You can see,	Can you see?
3. He can see.	Can he see?

PLI	TRAL.			
1. We can see,	Can we see?			
Ye can see,	§ Can ye see?			
2. Ye can see, You can see,	Can you see?			
3. They can see.	Can they see?			
-	-			
Prior Pre	sent Tense.			
	Can I have seen?			
1. 1 can have seen,				
2. Thou canst have seen,	Canst thou have seen?			
2. You can have seen,	Can you have seen?			
3. He can have seen.	Can be have seen?			
PL	URAL.			
1. We can have seen,	Can we have seen?			
2. Ye can have seen, You can have seen,	S Can ye have seen?			
You can have seen,	Can you have seen?			
3. They can have seen.	Can they have seen?			
	•			
Past	Past Tense.			
SING	ULAR.			
1. I could see,	Could I see?			
2. You couldst see, You could see,	(Couldst thou see?			
2. You could see,	Could you see?			
3. He could see.	Could he see?			
Pro	JRAL,			
1. We could see	Could we see?			
2. Ye could see, You could see,	\ Could ye see?			
2. You could see.	Could you see?			
8. They could see.	Could they see?			
•				
Duine D	ast Tense.			
FILLE	ast lense.			
1. I could have seen,	Could I have seen?			
. (Thou couldet have seen				
2. { Thou couldst have seen, You could have seen,	{ Could you have seen? Could you have seen?			
9 Ho sould have seen,	Could be have seen 9			

Let the Pupil give the other Modes and Tenses of this Verb -referring to pp. 142-3 for corresponding declarative forms.

PLURAL.

3. He could have seen.

1. We could have seen, 2. Ye could have seen, You could have seen, 3. They could have seen. { Couldst thou have seen? { Could you have seen? Could he have seen?

Could we have seen?
Could ye have seen?
Could you have seen?
Could they have seen?

EXERCISES.

(L)

Let the Pupils give the Class, Voice, Mode, Tense, Person, and Number of the following Verbs—and complete the Sentences:

1.—am writing a letter.	9.—couldst love to study.	
2.—are reading poetry.	10.—has walked to Boston.	
3.—didst see the eclipse.	11.—hast wandered from home.	
4.—had known duty.	12.—shall learn wisdom.	
5.—may feel the worm.	13.—will improve in writing.	
6.—ought to study.	14.—could recite lessons.	
	15.—canst be false to any man.	
	16.—wish to see home.	
17.—wilt have returned my books.		

.—wilt have returned my boo

18.—shall have returned from Europe.

(II.)

Repeat the First Person Singular of each Mode and Tense of the following Verbs:

Am,	Eat,	Neglect,	Receive,
Arise,	Fly,	Need,	Reject,
Begin,	Go,	Owe,	Select,
Blow,	Hold,	Ought,	Squander,
Come,	Know,	Practice,	Yoke,
Cut,	Lay,	Purchase,	Touch,
Do,	Lie,	Quiet,	Use,
Drink,	Make,	Qualify,	Wish.

Repeat the Third Person Plural of the same.

(III.)

Let the appropriate Auxiliary Verbs be inserted in the blank spaces indicated.

- 1. "Now the shades of night ---- gone."
- 2. "The bell's deep tones ---- swelling."
- 3. "The palace wrapped in flames."
- 4. "How --- my heart encrusted with the world."
- 5. "Everything in the life of such persons --- misplaced."
- 6. "Science raise thee to eminence."
- 7. "But I alone guide thee to felicity."
- 8. "Ten years I allot to the attainment of knowledge."
- 9. "A chieftain's vengeance thou ---- feel."
- 10. "The injuries of Fortune --- not affect the mind."

(IV.)

Let two Auxiliary Verbs be inserted in the following Sentences:
1. John — not — gone to the river.
2. We —— finished our task at five.
3. The earth ———— dissolved like snow.
4. How — we — reconciled?
5. Who ———— thought it?
6. You — fatigued.
7. He — not — frightened.
8. You — brought my letters.
9. The boy —— been injured by it.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

10. No doctor — made that man well.

REM.—The following are the IRREGULAR and the REDUNDANT VERBS of the English language.

Present. Past.	Present Participle. Past Participle.
Abideabode,	abidingabode or abided.*
Am or bewas,	beingbeen.
Arisearose,	arisingarisen.
Awakeawoke or awaked,	awakingawoke or awaked.
Bearbore or bare,	bearingborn.
Bear, to sus- tain bore or bare,	bearingborne,
Beatbeat,	beating beaten or beat.
Beginbegan or begun,	beginningbegun.
Beholdbeheld,	beholdingbeheld.
Belay belayed or belaid,	belayingbelayed or belaid.
Bendbent or bended,	bendingbent or bended.
Bereavebereft or bereaved,	bereavingbereft or bereaved.
Besetbeset,	besettingbeset.
Beseechbesought or beseech	ed,* beseechingbesought or beseeched.*
Betbet or betted,	bettingbet or betted.*
Betidebetided or betid,*	betidingbetided or betid.
Bidbade or bid,	biddingbidden or bid.
Bindbound,	bindingbound.
Bitebit,	bitingbitten or bit.
Bleedbled,	bleedingbled.
Blend blended or blent,	blendingblended or blent.
Blessblessed or blest,	blessingblessed or blest.
Blowblew or blowed,	blowingblowed or blown.
Breakbroke,	breakingbroken.
Breedbred,	breedingbreed.
Bringbrought,	bringingbrought.

^{*} Obsolete forms.

Present.	Past.	Present Participle.	Past Participle.
Build	built or builded,*	building	built or builded.*
Burn	burned or burnt,		burned or burnt.
	burst or bursted,*		burst or bursted.*
Buy		buying	
Cast		casting	
	caught or catched,*		caught or catched.*
Chide		chiding	
Choose		choosing	
	clove or cleft,	cleaving	
	cleaved or clave,	cleaving	
Cling		clinging	
	clothed or clad,	clothing	
Come	came,	coming	
Cost		costing	
	crept or creeped,*		crept or creeped.*
	crowed or crew,	crowing	
	cursed or curst,*		cursed or curst.*
Cut		cutting	
	dared or durst,	daring	
	dealt or dealed,*		dealt or dealed.*
Dig	dug or digged,*	digging	
	dived or dove,	diving	
Do		doing	
Draw	drew,	drawing	
	dreamed or dreamt,		dreamed or dreamt.
Dress	dressed or drest,		dressed or drest.
Drink		drinking	
Drive		driving	
	dwelt or dwelled,*		dwelt or dwelled.*
Eat	ate or eat,*	eating	eaten or eat.*
Fall	fell,	falling	
Feed		feeding	
Feel	felt,	feeling	felt.
Fight		fighting	
Find		finding	
Fleo	fled,	fleeing	
Fling	flung,	flinging	flung.
Fly	flew,	flying	
Forbear	forbore,	forbearing	
Forget	forgot or forgat,	forgetting	forgotten or forgot.
Forsake	forsook,	forsaking	
Freeze	froze or freezed,*	freezing	frozen or freezed.*
Geld	gelded or gelt,*	gelding	gelded or gelt.*
Get	got or gat,*	getting	
Gild	gilded or gilt,	gilding	
Girt	girded or girt.	girding	
Give		giving	
Go		going	
Grave			graved or graven.
Grind		grinding	
Grow		growing	

Present.	Past.	Present Participle.	Past Participle.
Hang	hung or hanged,	hanging	.hung or hanged.
Have		having	
Hear		hearing	
	heaved or hove,*		.heaved or hoven.*
	hewed,		.hewed or hewn.
Hide			.hidden or hid.
Hit		hitting	
Hold			.held or holden.*
Hurt		hurting	
Keep		keeping	
	kneeled or knelt,		.kneeled or knelt.
	knit or knitted,		.knit or knitted.
Know		knowing	
Lade			.laded or laden.
	laid or layed,		.laid or layed.*
Lead		leading	
	leaned or leant,		.leaned or leant.
	leaped or leapt,		.leaped or leapt.
	learned or learnt,		.learned or learnt.
Leave		leaving	
Lend			
		lending	
Let		letting	
Lie		lying	
	lighted or lit,	lighting	
Lose		losing	
Make		making	
	meant or meaned,*		. meant or meaned.*
Meet	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	meeting	_
	mowed,		.mowed or mown.
	mulcted or mulct,*		.mulcted or mulct.*
Outdo		outdoing	
	passed or past,		. passed or past.
	paid or payed,*		.paid or payed.*
	penned or pent,*		.penned or pent.*
	pled or pleaded,		pled or pleaded.
	proved,		.proved or proven.
Put		putting	
	quitted or quit,		quitted or quit.
	rapped or rapt,		rapped or rapt.
Read		reading	
Rend		rending	
Rid		ridding	. rid.
Ride			.rode or ridden.
	rung or rang,	ringing	
Rise		rising	
Rive		riving	
	roasted or roast,		roasted or roast,
Rot			rotten or rotted.
	ran or run,	running	
Saw			.sawn or sawed.
Say	said,	saying	.said.

VERBS-IRREGULAR.

Present.	Past.	Present Participle.	Past Participis.
See	. 88W,	seeing	seen.
Seek		seeking	
Sell		selling	sold.
Send		sending	
Set		setting	
	shook or shaked,*	shaking	shaken or shaked.*
Shape			shaped or shapen.
Shave			shaved or shaven.
Shear	sheared,		sheared or shorn.
Shed		shedding	
Shine	shone or shined,	shining	shined or shone.
Show	showed,	showing	showed or shown.
Shoe		shoeing	shod.
Shoot		shooting	Phot.
Shred		shredding	
Shrink		shrinking	shrunk.
Shut		shutting	
	sung or sang,	singing	
	sunk or sank,	sinking	
Sit		sitting	
Slay		slaying	
Sleep		sleeping	
Slide		sliding	
Sling		slinging	
Slink		slinking	
	slitted or slit,	slitting	
	smelled or smelt,		smelled or smelt.
Smite			smitten or smit.
Sow			sowed or sown.
	spoke or spake,	speaking	
Speed		speeding	
	. spelled or spelt,		spelled or spelt.
Spend		spending	
	spilled or spilt,		spilled or spilt.
Spin		epinning	
	spit or spat,*	spitting	spit.
Split		splitting	eplit.
Spoil	spoiled or spoilt,	spoiling	spoiled or spoilt.
Spread	. spread.	spreading	
	eprung or sprang,	springing	
Stand		standing	
	stove or staved,		stove or staved.
Stav	staid or stayed,*		staid or stayed.*
Steal		stealing	
Stick		sticking	_
Sting		stinging	
	stunk or stank,*	stinking	
	strode or strid,	striding	stridden.
Strike		striking	struck or stricken.
	strung or stringed,	stringing	strung or stringed.
Strive		striving	striven.
D-1110			

Present.	Past.	Present Participle.	Past Participis.
Strow	strowed,	strowings	trowed or strown.
Swear	swore,	swearings	
Sweat	sweated or sweat	sweating	weated or sweat.
Sweep	swept,	sweepings	
Swell	swelled,	swellings	welled or swollen.
Swim		swimmings	wam.
Swing	swung,	swinginge	wung.
Take	took,	takingt	aken.
Teach	taught,	teachingt	aught.
Tear	tore,	tearingt	orn.
Tell	told,	tellingt	old.
	thought,	thinkingt	
Thrive	thrived or throve,	thriving't	hrived or thriven.
Throw	threw or throwed,	throwingt	brown or throwed.
Thrust	thrust,	thrustingt	hrust
Tread	trod,	treadingt	rodden or trod.
Wake	waked or woke,	wakingv	
Wax		waxingv	vaxed or waxen.
Wear	wore,	wearingv	
Weave	wove,	weavingv	voven or wove.
Wed	wedded or wed,	weddingv	vedded or wed.
Weep	wept,	weepingv	rept.
Wet	wet or wetted, :	wettingv	vet or wetted.
Whet	whetted or whet,	whettingw	hetted or whet.
Win	won,	winningv	von.
Wind	wound or winded,*	windingv	ound or winded.
Work	worked or wrought,	workingv	vorked or wrought.
Wring	wrung or wringed,	wriugingv	ringed or wrung.
Write		writingv	vritten or writ.

Obs. 1.—Words in the above list, marked with a (*), are not much used by modern writers.

Obs. 2.—A Verb often has a Preposition or other prefix placed before it; the conjugation, however, remains the same.

Examples.

Take	took	taken.
Mistake	mistook	mistaken.
Overtake	overtook	overtaken.
Misunderstand	misunderstood	misunderstood.

REM.—The class should repeat this list in concert—prefixing to each Verb one of the Personal Pronouns. For the Third Person a Noun may be used—thus:

I write	I wrote	I have written	having written.
			having trod.
He sweeps	he swept	he has swept	having swept.
John does	John did	John has done	having done.
			having sat.
Some hear	some heard	some have heard	having heard.
They see	they saw	they are seen	being seen.

To the Transitive Verbs, Objects may be attached—thus:

We saw wood we sawed wood	we have sawn wood.
Birds build nestsbirds built nests	birds have built nests.
John writes lettersJohn wrote letters.	John will write letters.
Thou seest methou sawest me	thou wilt see me.

Other variations in these concert exercises may be profitable such as placing the words now, to-day, etc., after the Present-yesterday, etc., after the Past Tense-and heretofore, recently, etc., after the Prior Present—thus:

I begin to-day	I began yesterday I have begun recently.
The wind blows now	the wind blew then the wind has blown often.
The bell rings often	the bell rang lately the bell will ring to-morrow.
William writes now	William wrote then William will write often.

Unipersonal Verbs.

Def. 150.—A Unipersonal Verb is a Verb used only as the Predicate of the Indefinite Pronoun "it."

Examples.—It snows.—It rains.—It seems.—It becomes.—It behooves.—It is evident.

Methinks is an anomalous form of the Verb think.

Exercises for Review.

REM.—Let the Pupil give the Voice, Mode, Tense, Person, and Number of the Verbs in the following Sentences:

- 1. Science strengthens mind.
- 2. Do you see the large ship traversing the ocean by the force of the wind?
- 3. William has visited Europe.
- 4. Have we exercised discretion?
- 5. I, John, saw these things.
- 6. Did Washington secure renown?
- 7. Ye had accomplished purposes.
- 8. I shall understand you.
- 9. Will Warner study Greek?
- 10. Thou will not comprehend it.
- 11. Ye will have accomplished much.
- 12. We may receive instruction.
- 13. Canst thou guide Arcturus? 14. Shall William accompany us?
- 15. I will study Greek.
- 16. They are not appreciated.
- 17. Could it not be accomplished?
- 18. Mary might have been misinformed.
- 19. Wisdom should be honored.

- 20. Thou canst not have been understood.
- 21. Sevastopol could not have been
- 22. Meteors might have been seen.
- 23. What should have been done?
- 24. Who can be trusted?

attention.

- 25. Have you been reading poetry?
- 26. Cora will be writing letters. 27. Stephen could not have been giving
- 28. Might Clara have been admitted?
- 29. Boys had been reciting lessons.
- 80. We will not be enslaved.
- 31. Pupils might not have been giving attention.
- 32. Caroline will have visited Syria.
- 33. Hear me for my cause.
- 34. Be silent, that ye may hear.
- 35. Bid her give me new and glorious

ADVERBS.

REM.—As actions are modified by circumstances, and as qualities vary in degree, so words expressing actions, and words denoting qualities, are modified by other words, denoting time, place, degree, manner, cause, &c. Hence,

DEF. 150.—An **Adverb** is a Word used to modify the signification of a Verb, of an Adjective, or of another Modifier.

Obs. 1.—Adverbs may consist of Words, Phrases, and Sentences.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. Adverbial Words.—The very best men sometimes commit faults.
- 2. Adverbial Phrase.—" In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth."
 - 3. Adverbial Sentence .- "They kneeled before they fought."
- Obs. 2.—Adverbial Words are of great utility in rendering the language *concise* and *spirited*. They are commonly substituted for Phrases.

EXAMPLES.

- "Brilliantly"....for...." With a brilliant appearance."
 "Solemnly".....for...." In a solemn manner."
- "Vainly".....for ... "In a vain attempt."
- "Here".....for...."In this place."
- "Now"......for...." At this time."
- "Brilliantly the glassy waters mirror back his smiles."
- 2. "Solemnly he took the earthly state."
- 3. " Vainly we offer each ample oblation."
- 4. "Here sleeps he now"-in this place, at this time.
- 5. "The waves are white below"-below him.
- 6. "Heat me these irons hot." Heat for me these irons hot.
- 7. "Willie has come home-early"-at an early hour.

REM.—"Below"—" me"—"home"—and "early," are substituted for Adverbial Phrases. [See Part I., pp. 23 and 173.]

OBS. 3.—Words are also substituted for Adverbial Sentences.

EXAMPLES.—1. "While there, we visited the prison;" for, while we were at Auburn, we visited the prison.

2. " Then, when I am thy captive, talk of chains."

OBS. 4.—An Adverb often modifies a Phrase.

EXAMPLE.—We went almost to Boston.

"To Boston" is an Adverbial Phrase. "Almost" is an Adverbial Word—used to modify the Adverbial Phrase "To Boston."

Obs. 5.—The Words which Adverbs properly modify are sometimes understood.

EXAMPLE.—Thou canst but add one bitter woe

To those [] already there... which are there.

Obs. 6.—Adverbs sometimes take the place of Verbs, which they modify.

EXAMPLES.—" Off, off, I bid you." "To arms!"
"Back to thy punishment, false fugitive!"

OBS. 7.—Words generally used as Adverbs sometimes take the place of Nouns, and hence become *Pro*nouns.

EXAMPLES .- 1. "Till then"-for, till that time.

- 2. "From there"-for, from that place.
- 3. "And I have made a pilgrimage from far."-Hosmer.
- 4. "Oh, let the ungentle spirit learn from hence A small unkindness is a great offense."

Obs. 8.—Participles become Adverbs when they indicate the manner of an action, or modify a quality, or are substituted for an Adverbial Phrase.

Examples.-1. "'Tis strange, 'tis passing strange."

- 2. "A virtuous household, but exceeding poor."
- "The surging billows and the gamboling storms Come, crouching, to his feet."...in a crouching attitude. [P. 183, Obs. 9.]
- Obs. 9.—A few Words, commonly used as Prepositions, are sometimes used Adverbially.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Thou didst look down upon the naked earth."

And may at last my weary age Find out the peaceful hermitage."—Millon.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

REM.—The classes of Adverbs are very numerous. The following are the most important:

I. OF THE FORMS OF ADVERBS.

Obs. 10.—Some Words are used almost exclusively as Adverbs, and are generally *Primitive Words*.

EXAMPLES.—Even—here—now—not—then—there.

Obs. 11.—But most Words used as Adverbs are Derivative Words—their Radicals being used commonly as Nouns or as Adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—1. From Nouns.—Always—nightly—hourly—aloft—ashore.

2. From Adjectives.—Brilliantly—rightly—softly—virtuously.

Obs. 12.—Many Words, commonly used as Nouns, Adjectives, Prepositions, etc., become Adverbs by representation or substitution.

Examples.-1. "William rises early"-at an early hour.

- 2. "You have come too late"—at too late a day.
- 3. "Warner will come home"-to his home.
- 4. "He will return to-morrow"-on the morrow.
- 5. "The captain had gone below"-below deck.
- 6. "Is the agent within?"—within the house.
 [See page 22, Obs. 2.]

II. OF THE FUNCTIONS OF ADVERBS.

Prin.—Adverbs are commonly divided into two primary classes:

- 1. Adverbs of Manner, and
- 2. Adverbs of Circumstance.

DEF. 151.—Adverbs of Manner are those which ask or answer the question, How?

Obs. 1.—Adverbs of Manner are such as indicate—

- 1. Affirmation.—Ay—certainly—doubtless—surely—verily, etc.
- 2. Doubt.—Perchance—perhaps—possibly, etc.
- 3. Mode.—Aloud—asunder—how—so—together—thus, etc.
- 4. Negation.—Nay-not-never.

Obs. 2.—Phrases and Sentences often indicate the manner of an act, and are therefore Adverbials.

EXAMPLES.

Phrases.-1. "God moves in a mysterious way."-How?

2. "Silence now
Is brooding like a gentle spirit o'er....How?
The still and pulseless world."

Sentences .- 3. "He died as he lived-a devotee of mammon."

4. "There are departed beings that I have loved as I never again shall love in this world."....How?

DEF. 152.—Adverbs of Circumstance are such as ask or answer the questions, When? Where? Whither? Whence? How much? Why?—indicating Time, Place, Degree, Cause.

I. OF TIME.

DEF. 153.—All Words used to ask or to answer the questions, "When?" or "How often?" are properly called Adverbs of Time.

Examples.-1. Present.-Instantly-now-presently-yet, etc.

- 2. Past.-Already-heretofore-hitherto-lately.
- 3. Future.—Henceforth—hereafter—soon, etc.
- 4. Absolute.—Always—ever—never, etc.
- 5. Repeated.—Continually—often—rarely—sometimes.

Obs. 1.—Phrases and Sentences also perform the office of Adverbs of Time, whenever they ask or answer the questions, when?—how often?—how long?

EXAMPLES.

- Phrases.-1. "In the beginning, God created the heaven and the earth."
 - 2. "The Christmas rose is in bloom during the month of January.".... How long?
 - "At midnight, in his guarded tent, The Turk was dreaming."...dreaming-when?-where?
- Sentences.—4. "And as Jesus passed by, he saw a man who was blind"....saw a blind man—when?
 - 5. "I think of the friends who had roamed with me there, When the sky was so blue, and the flowers were so fair.".... roamed with me—when?

II. OF PLACE.

DEF. 154.—All Words used to ask or to answer the questions, Where? Whither? or Whence? are classed as Adverbs of Place.

- EXAMPLES.-1. In a Place.-Here-there-where? etc.
 - 2. To a Place. Hither-thither-whither? etc.
 - 3. From a Place.-Hence-thence-whence? etc.

OBS. 1.—Most Adverbs of Place are in the form of Phrases.

EXAMPLES.—Mary went fire through New York, to Norfolk, to Baltimore.

OBS. 2.—And many Adverbs of Place are in the form of Sentences

EXAMPLE.—"Where wealth and freedom reign, contentment fails."

III. OF DEGREE.

DEF. 155.—Words which ask or answer the questions, How much? How far? To what extent? are classed as Adverbs of Degree.

EXAMPLES.—Altogether — hardly — little — much—quite—merely—so—too—very, etc.

IV. OF CAUSE.

DEF. 156.—Words used to ask or to answer the questions, Why? Wherefore? etc., are classed as Adverbs of Cause.

Examples.—Accordingly—consequently—hence—therefore, wherefore, etc.

"Let others brave the flood in quest of gain."

V. INTERROGATIVES.

Def. 157.—Adverbs used to ask questions are called Interrogative Adverbs.

Examples .- Where have you been ?- How can we escape?

OBS.—Interrogative Adverbs are found in each of the above classes.

MODIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

Prin.—Some Adverbs are modified, like Adjectives, by Comparison.

EXAMPLES.

		Pos.	Comp.	Superl.
1.	By use of Suffixes	Soon	Sooner	Soonest.
	" " Auxiliary Adverbs			

RECAPITULATION.

	verbial Element consist of	A Word. A Phrase. A Sentence.	Classes.	of Manner	Affirmation. Doubt. Mode, or Method. Negation. Time. Place.	
		[}		Degree. Cause.	
		Questions	FOR RE	VIEW.		
159.	The Adverbia Make a Senter	l Element m	ay consis	S t of what?S pial Word.		
	" "	"	"	Phrase.		
	" "	46	"	Sentence.		
160.	What effect have Adverbial Words on style?See Obs. 2. Adverbial Words are often substituted for what? See Obs. 3. 60. What Class of Elements do Adverbial Words					
				<u>.</u> 8	lee Obs. 4.	
	Words genera					
101				bs ?S ial Words ? See		
101.	What is said of				ODS. 10, 11.	
				S	ee Ohe 19	
				of Adverbs?S		
	.,					
				nner?S		
	Make a Senter	nce having a	n Adver	o of Affirmation	<i>ı</i> .	
	" "	"	"	Doubt.		
	"	66	"	Manner.		
		" "	"	Negation.		
	" "	8		Adverb of Man		
100		5		e Adverb of M		
162What is an Adverb of Circumstance? See Def. 152.						
What Sub-classes have Adverbs of Circumstance? What is an Adverb of Time?See Def. 153.						
Make a Sentence having an Adverb of Time.						
	" "			Adverb of Tim	e.	
	"			e Adverb of Ti		
What is an Adverb of Place?See Def. 154.						

EXERCISES.

In what respects are some Adverbs modified?

"

"

Let the following Adverbs be classified and their Modification given:

How,	Already,	In a moment,
Not,	Quickly,	In flower,
There,	Vilely,	O'er the ruins,
Soon.	Eagerly.	At home.

Let the Adverbial Words, Phrases, and Sentences, in the following Examples, be pointed out and parsed after the following

MODEL.

 "E'en now, where Alpine solitudes ascend, I sit me down, a pensive hour to spend; And placed on high, above the storm's career, Look downward, where a hundred realms appear."

Now Modifies "sit"—denoting time; hence, an Adverb.
Where Alpine soli- tudes ascend Modifies "sit"—denoting place; hence, an Adverb.
Down
A pensive hour to Modifies "sit"—denoting cause; hence, an Adverb.
On high Modifies "placed"—denoting place; hence, an Adverb.
Above the storm's Modifies "placed"—denoting place; hence, an Adverb.
Downward Modifies "look"—denoting place; hence, an Adverb.
Where a hundred realms appear \ Modifies "look"—denoting place; hence, an Adverb.

Cause.

A "Earth keeps me here

Awhile; yet I shall leave it, and shall rise

On fairer wings than thine, to skies more clear."

Here Modifies "keeps"—denoting place; hence, an Adverb of Place.

Awhile Modifies "keeps"—denoting time; hence, an Adverb of Time.

On wings ... Modifies "rise"—denoting means; hence, an Adverb of Means.

("On fairer wings than thine," is the Modified Adverb.)

Than thine. Modifies "fairer"—denoting degree; hence, an Adverb of Degree.

To skies... Modifies "rise"—denoting place; hence, an Adverb of Place.

("To skies more clear," is the Modified Adverb.)

More Modifies "clear"—denoting degree; hence, an Adverb of Degree.

OBS. 1.—Let it be remembered that the term "Adverb" is applied to a distinct element in the structure of Sentences—that the function of that element may be performed by a single Word or by a combination of Words, constituting a Phrase or a Sentence. In analyzing Sentences containing these three distinct forms of the Adverbial Element, we proceed according to the Models given above. But,

Obs. 2.—The Words composing an Adverbial Phrase or Sentence have also their distinct *individual* offices. Thus, the Adverbial Phrase, "Above the storm's career," consists of a *Preposition*, (above)—an Adjective, (the)—an Adjective, (storm's)—a Noun, (career).

So also the Adverbial Sentence, "Where a hundred realms appear," consists of a Conjunction, (where)—an Adjective, (a)—an Adjective, (hundred)—a Noun, (realms)—and a Verb, (appear). Hence,

OBS. 3.—In Proximate Analysis, it is sufficient to discuss the Elements of Principal Sentences; while, in Ultimate Analysis, each separate Word composing an Element is to be parsed separately.

PREPOSITIONS.

REMARK.—In the English language, two or more Words often combine to constitute an individual Element [See Def. 8] in the structure of Sentences. These combinations are generally introduced by Words used to show some *relation* of the words which follow to some preceding words. Hence,

DEF. 159.—A **Preposition** is a Word used to introduce a Phrase, showing the *relation* of its Object to the Word which the Phrase qualifies.

LIST.

OBS.—A Preposition is generally an Element in a *Phrase*—not in a *Sentence*. Its office is:

- 1. To introduce a Phrase.
- To indicate the office of its Phrase, by showing a peculiar relation of the words connected.

The following Words are sometimes or generally used as Prepositions:

	LIST.
(a.)	A "Wild winds and mad waves drive the vessel a wreck."
	Abaft "The ropes were coiled abaft the beam."
	Aboard" They came aboard ship."
	About "We walked about town."
	Above "There is a ferry above the falls."
	Across" Across the ocean came a pilgrim bark."
	Adown" He let fall adown his silvery beard some tears."
	Afore" I took position afore the windlass."
(c.)	After "He that cometh after me, is preferred before me."
	Against" He that is not for me, is against me."
	Along "Winds that run along the summits of their hills."
	Amid"We stowed them amid-ships."
	Amidst" Amidst the mists, he thrusts his fists."
	Among" He became a great favorite among the boys."
	Amongst" We made diligent search amongst the rubbish."
	Anear "The last measure of misery anear us is seldom seen."
	Around" The chill dews of evening were falling around me."
(c.)	As "That England can spare from her service such men as him."
	Aslant" It struck aslant the beam."
	Astride "He sat astride the beam."
	At "He was at work at noon."
	Athwart The dolphin leaped athwart her bows."
(c.)	Before" He stood before the people."
	Behind "She stood behind a rick of barley."
	Below"The captain was below decks."
	Beneath "Beneath the mouldering ruins."
	Beside "Beside its embers, red and clear." (By the side of.)
	Besides "There was a famine in the land, besides the first famine." (In addition to.)
	Between" Between whom, perfect friendship has existed."
	Betwixt There is no difference betwixt them."
	Beyond "Beyond all doubt." "He lives beyond the lake."
(c.)	But "All went but me."
(0.)	By "To sail by Ephesus."—" They stood by the cross."
	Concerning Concerning whom I have before written."
	Despite" He will rise to fame, despite all opposition."
	During" This has occurred many times during the year."
(c.)	Ere 'And ere another evening's close.''
\-·/	Except" Except these bonds."
	Excepting" Excepting that bad habit, the teacher was faultless."
(c.)	For

PREPOSITIONS.

	PREPOSITIONS.	,
	LIST,	
	From "Playful children, just let loose from school."	
	In	
	Into	
(a.)	Like	
(6.)	human grandeur."	
	Manger "This, manger all the world, will I keep safe."	
(ad)	Near	
()	Next "Plural nominatives should be placed next their verbs."	
	Nigh	
	Notwithstanding Notwithstanding this, we remain friends."	
	Of " Of the arts of peace."	
(ad.)	Off "He fell off the bows."	
	On On a bed of green sea-flowers."	
(a.)	Opposite" Our friend lives opposite the Exchange."	
• •	Over "High o'er their heads the weapons swung."	
(a.)	Past" We came past Avon."	
(a.)	Pending "He remained at court, pending the negotiations."	
(a.)	Per "Twelve hundred dollars per annum."	
(a.)	Respecting "Nothing was known respecting him."	
	Round "He went round the parish, making complaints."	
	Sans "Sans teeth, sans eyes, sans taste, sans everything."	
(c.)	Since "Since Saturday he has not been seen."	
	Save "All, save this little nook of land."	
(a.)	Saving "With habits commendable, saving only this—he chews	į
	tobacco."	
(c.)	Than" Than whom none higher sat."	
	Till	
(-)	Touching "Touching these things, whereof I am accused."	
(a.)	Towards "They returned towards evening."	
	Under "Then they went under the cloud."	
	Underneath And underneath his feet, he cast the darkness."	
	Unlike "Unlike all that I had ever before seen."	
(c.)	Until "We shall not return until Saturday."	
(0.)	Unto "Unto him who rules the invisible armies of eternity."	
	Up "The whole fleet was sailing up the river."	
	Upon "He stood upon the highest peak."	
	Versus "John Doe versus Richard Roe."	
	Via "This stage is for Buffalo, via Batavia."	
	With "With cautious steps and slow."	
	Within Peace be within these walls."	
	Without "Without it, what is man?"	
Rı	EM.—Words marked (a.) are also used as Adjectives.	
	Words marked (c.) are also used as Conjunctions.	
	Words marked (ad.) are also used as Adverbs.	
O	ss. 1.—The following Words, when used together, are often	Ļ
calle	d Double Prepositions:	

Aboard of....." We could not get aboard of her."
According to ..." He came according to agreement."
As for "As for me and my house."

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As to "As to that, I have nothing to say." Contrary to "He came contrary to expectation." Devoid of "You live devoid of peace." From among...." From among thousand celestial ardors." From between .. "He came from between the lakes." From off...... "This lady-fly I take from off the grass."

From under "He rushed from under the falling tower."

Instead of "Instead of the thorn shall come up the fir."

In lieu of...... "She has that sum in lieu of dower." Out of Out of the cooling brine to leap."

Over against...." Every one worked over against his own house." Previous to.... "Previous to this, his character had been good."

Obs. 2.—Most of these, however, may be resolved into separate

EXAMPLES.-1. Aboard of-on board of. He came on board of the ship.

Words-making complex Phrases.

- 2. From between. He came from [his home, situated] between the lakes.
- 8. Instead of-in place of. In the stead [place] of the thorn.
- 4. Previous to-previously to. Previously to this his character had been good.

REM.—A few other words are sometimes used as Prepositions.

OBS. 3.—The antecedent term of relation—the word which the Phrase, introduced by a Preposition, qualifies—may be

A Noun.—The house of God.—The land of the blessed.

A Pronoun.—Who of us shall go ?—I care not which of you.

An Adjective.—It is good for nothing.

A Verb.—We love to study.—We delight in improvement.

A Participle.—Jumping from a precipice.—"Rushing through the valleys."

An Adverb.—" He is too wise to err, and too good to be unkind."

Obs. 4.—A Preposition commonly indicates the office of the Phrase which it introduces.

In, on, under, above, etc., indicate a relation of place, including the idea of rest.

EXAMPLES.—William's hat is $\begin{cases} in \text{ the hall,} \\ on \text{ the stool,} \\ under \text{ the table.} \end{cases}$

From, to, into, through, out of, etc., indicate a relation of place, with the idea of motion.

EXAMPLES.—We came { from New York, to Boston, through Springfield.

Of, generally indicates a relation of possession.

EXAMPLE.—" The lay of the last minstrel"—the last minstrel's lay.

As, like, than, etc., used as Prepositions, indicate a relation of comparison.

EXAMPLES.—1. "It is not fit for such as us
To sit with rulers of the land."—W. Scott.

"All great, learned men, like me, Once learned to read their A, B, C."

8. " Than whom, earth holds no better man."

During, till, since, etc., indicate a relation of time.

EXAMPLES.—1. "We have vacation during the whole month of July."

2. "Since Saturday, we have not seen him."

But, as the kind of relation expressed by a given Preposition is not uniform, no perfect classification can be made.

Obs. 5.—Prepositions are sometimes incorporated with their Objects.

Examples.—I go a-fishing.—He fell a-sleep.—Come a-board.

Obs. 6.—Words commonly used as Prepositions are sometimes used in Predication with Verbs.

EXAMPLES.-1. Its idle hours are o'er.

2. That was not thought of.

For other observations on Prepositions, see PART III.—
Prepositions.

EXERCISES.

1. Where streams of earthly joy exhaustless rise.

Of.....Shows a relation of "streams" and "joy." Hence, a Preposition.

- 2. "O refuge, Meet for fainting pilgrims."
- For.....Shows a relation of "meet" and "pilgrims." Hence, a Preposition.
 - 8. "On the plains,
 And spangled fields, and in the mazy vales,
 The living throngs of earth before Him fall,
 With thankful hymns, receiving from His hands
 Immortal life and gladness."
- On.....Shows a relation of [existing understood, which qualifies]
 "throngs" and "plains and fields." Hence, a Preposition.
- In.....Shows a relation of [existing understood, which qualifies]
 "throngs" and "vales." Hence, a Preposition.
- Of.....Shows a relation of "throngs" and "earth." Hence, a Preposition.
- Before. Shows a relation of "fall" and "him." Hence, a Preposition.
- With...Shows a relation of [worshiping, or some equivalent word understood, which qualifies] "throngs" and "hymns." Hence, a Preposition.
- Let the Pupils point out the Prepositions, with their several Antecedents and Objects, in the following

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

- 4. "The chief FAULT of Coleridge LIES in the style, which has been justly objected to, on account of its obscurity, general turgidness of diction, and a profusion of new-coined double epithets."
 - 5. To him, who, in the love of nature, holds Communion with her visible forms, SHE SPEAKS A various LANGUAGE:
 - 6. For his gayer hours
 SHE HAS A VOICE Of gladness, and a SMILE
 And ELOQUENCE Of beauty;
 - And she glides
 Into his darker musings, with a mild
 And gentle sympathy, that steals away
 Their sharpness, ere he is aware.

CONJUNCTIONS.

REM.—It should be remembered that Prepositions connect Words by showing a relation.

We have another class of Words, used simply to connect Words and Phrases similar in construction, and to introduce Sentences. Hence,

Def. 160.—A Conjunction is a Word used to join Words, Phrases, and Sentences, or to introduce Sentences.

EXAMPLES.—Mary and Anna have perfect lessons, because they study diligently.

REM. 1.—In this example, "and" connects "Mary" and "Anna"—two words having the same construction—and "because" introduces an Auxiliary Sentence.

LIST.

The following are the principal Words which are commonly used as Conjunctions:

After,*	Either,	Moreover,	Than,*
Again,	Else,	Nay,	That,
Also,	Except,*	Neither,	Then,*
Although,*	For,*	Nor,	Therefore,
And,	Further,	Now,	Though,*
As,*	Furthermore,	Notwithstanding,*	Thus,
As well as,*	Howbeit,	Or,	Unless,*
Because,*	However,*	Otherwise,	When,*
Before,*	Howsoever,*	Provided,*	Wherefore,
Being,*	If,*	Since,*	While,*
Besides,	Inasmuch as,*	So,	Whilst,
Both,	Lest,*	Still,	Yet.
But.	Likewise,	•	

REM. 2.—A few other words are sometimes used as Conjunctions.

REM. 3.—The words in the above List, marked thus (*), commonly introduce Auxiliary Sentences.

Obs. 1.—Conjunctions used to introduce Auxiliary Sentences, and some others, constitute also an index or type of the office of the Sentences which they introduce.

EXAMPLES.—1. "If he repent, forgive him."
2. "As you journey, sweetly sing."

In these examples, "if" renders its Sentence conditional—"as" indicates that its Sentence ("you journey") modifies "sing" in respect to time.

Note.—When, as, since, and many other Conjunctions used to introduce Auxiliary Sentences, are called, by some grammarians, Conjunctive Adverbs. "And the rest will I set in order when I come." We are told that "when," in the above example, is an Adverb of Time, relating to the two Verbs, "will set" and "come."

We are also told (and properly) that "Adverbs of time are those which answer to the question when?"

But does "when," in the above example, "answer the question when?" Certainly not. Then it can not be an Adverb of Time. But the Auxiliary Sentence, "when I come," does answer the question "when." It tells when "I will set the rest in order." Hence the Sentence, "when I come," is an Adverb of Time; and the Word "when"—used only to introduce that Sentence—connecting it to "will set," is a Conjunction. [See the preceding observation.]

OBS. 2.—A Word used chiefly to introduce a Sentence is therefore a Conjunction. If the Sentence introduced by it is Auxiliary Adverbial in office, it may properly be called an *Adverbial Conjunction*.

Let the Pupil remember that it is the Sentence that is Adverbial not the Word used to introduce the Sentence.

Obs. 3.—The Conjunction nor generally performs a secondary office—that of a negative Adverb.

EXAMPLE.—"Man wants but little here below, Nor wants that little long."

In this example "nor" introduces the Sentence, and also gives it a negative signification.

The Conjunction "lest" has sometimes a similar construction.

EXAMPLE. - "Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty."

OBS. 4.—DOUBLE CONJUNCTIONS.—Two Conjunctions are sometimes used to introduce the same Sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. "It seems as if they were instructed by some secret instinct."

2. "And yet, fair bow, no fabling dreams."

As though, but that, and some other words, are often used as Double Conjunctions.

- Obs. 5.—But, when an Auxiliary Sentence precedes a Principal Sentence, the Conjunctions introducing them are not to be regarded as double, although they may be in juxtaposition. [See this Obs.]
- Obs. 6.—In addition to those Words properly called Conjunctions, we have other words used to introduce Sentences—as a secondary office.
 - EXAMPLES.—1. "The grave, that never spoke before,

 Hath found at length a tongue to chide."
 - We are watchers of a beacon, Whose light must never die."
- REM. 1.—"That never spoke before," is an Auxiliary Sentence introduced by the word "that."

The principal office of "that" is Substantive—the Subject of "spoke." Its secondary office is Conjunctive—introduces its Sentence and connects it with its Principal.

REM. 2.—In Example 2, the Word "whose" has a Principal office—Adjunct of "light;" and a secondary office—introduces its Sentence and connects it with its Principal.

All Relative Pronouns serve the office of Conjunctions, in addition to their Substantive office.

[For other observations, the student is referred to PART III., CONJUNCTIONS.]

EXERCISES.

"God created the heaven and the earth."

- "And"...Connects "heaven" and "earth." Hence a Conjunction.

 "Temperance and frugality promote health and secure happiness."
- "And"...Connects "temperance" and "frugality." Hence, a Conjunction.
- "And"...Connects "promote" and "secure." Hence, a Conjunction.
 - "And the eyes of the sleepers waxed deadly and chill."
- "And"...Introduces a Sentence. Hence, a Conjunction.
- "And"...Connects "deadly" and "chill." Hence, a Conjunction.
 - "And hoary peaks that proudly prop the skies, Thy dwellings are."

- "And"...Introduces a Sentence. Hence, a Conjunction.
- "That"...Is the Subject of "prop." Hence, a Substantive.

 It also introduces its Sentence, and connects it with

 "peaks."

"My heart is awed within me when I think
Of the great miracle that still goes on
In silence round me,"

- "When"..Introduces the Auxiliary Sentence. Hence, a Conjunction.
 - " Its Sentence is Adverbial in its office. Hence, an Adverbial Conjunction.
 - "When" is not an Element—i. e., it bears no part in the structure of its Sentence. It is neither a Principal Part, nor an Adjunct; it primarily connects: secondarily, indicates the office of its Sentence. [See Obs. 1, above.]
- "That"...Is the subject of "goes." Hence, a Substantive—a Pronoun.
 - As a secondary office, "that" introduces its Sentence, and connects it with "miracle." Hence, a Conjunctive Pronoun.

EXCLAMATION.

DEF. 161.—An **Exclamation** is a Word used to express a sudden or intense emotion.

Obs. 1.—Exclamations may consist—

- 1. Of Letters—as, O! Oh! Ah! Lo!
- Of Words—commonly used as Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, and Adverbs—as, Woe! Strange! Hark! Really! Behold! Shocking!
- 3. Of Phrases-For shame!
- 4. Of Sentences—" O, Ephraim! How can I give thee up!"

Obs. 2.—Exclamations are followed by—

Words—"O, Liberty!"—"Ah, the treasure!"
Phrases—"O, for a lodge in some vast wilderness!"

Sentences—"O, bear me to some solitary cell!"

REM.—The term Exclamation is preferred to Interjection, as being more appropriate to its office.

Exclaim—"to cry out." This we do with the use of Exclama-

Interject—" to cast between." We very seldom cast these words between others—they are generally placed before other words.

WORDS OF EUPHONY.

DEF. 162.—A Word of Euphony is a Word used chiefly for the sake of *sound*, or to change the *position*, accent, or emphasis of other Words in a Sentence.

Bramples.—1. "I think there is a knot of you, Beneath that hollow tree."

- "There" is used to allow the Predicate "is" to precede its Subject, "knot." In this Sentence it is not used Adverbially.
 - 2. "I sit me down a pensive hour to spend."
 - " Me" is used to throw the accent on the word "down."
 - "These were thy charms, sweet village! sports like these, With sweet succession, taught e'en toil to please."
 - " E'en" is used to make "toil" emphatic.
- Obs. 1.—Words of Euphony are such as commonly belong to some other "part of speech." But they are properly called Words of Euphony when they do not perform their usual grammatical offices. They are, then, in their offices chiefly Rhetorical—being used,
 - (1.) To render other Words emphatic.
 - EXAMPLES.-1. "Even in their ashes live their wonted fires."
 - 2. "The moon herself is lost in heaven."
 - (2.) To change the position of the parts of a Sentence.
 - EXAMPLES .- 3. " There are no idlers here."
 - 4. "Now, then, we are prepared to take up the main question."
 - (3.) To preserve the rhythm in a line of poetry.
 - Examples.—5. "I sit me down a pensive hour to spend."
 - 6. "His teeth they chatter, chatter still."
- REM. 1.—It is quite idle to call—as most grammarians do—the Word even, in Example 1, an Adverb, modifying "live;" for its sole office is to render the phrase "in their ashes" emphatic. Such office is Rhetorical—not Grammatical.

- REM. 2.—To call the word "there," in Example 3, an "Adverb of Place," is manifestly absurd; since the Verb "are" is modified by the Adverb "here," and hence can not, at the same time, be modified by a Word of directly the opposite signification.
- REM. 3.—The same remark is also applicable to the word "then," in Example 4.
- Ons. 2.—Words are often transposed, lengthened, shortened, and in other ways changed for the sake of sound. [See "Euphony," in Part III.]

WORDS VARYING IN THEIR ETYMOLOGY.

REM. 1.—Words are similar in Orthospy when they are pronounced with the same sound of the same letter.

Examples.—There, their—all, awl—ant, aunt.

REM. 2.—They are similar in *Orthography* when they are formed by the same letters, similarly arranged.

Examples.—Read, read—ex'tract, extract'—wind, wind.

- REM. 3.—They are similar in *Etymology* when they perform a similar office in the construction of a Phrase or of a Sentence.
- REM. 4.—But it is plain that words similar in Orthoëpy differ in their Orthography—and words of similar Orthography perform widely different offices in different connections.
- IF It should always be remembered by the Pupil that the OFFICE of a word—not its shape—determines its Etymology.

OBS.—Among the Words of similar Orthography that differ in their Etymology are the following:

A......Adj.....Webster wrote a Dictionary.

A......Prep....Wild winds and mad waves drive the vessel a wreck.

Above ... Prep He stands above us.

Above ... Adv By the terms above specified.

After Prep.... He that cometh after me is preferred before me.

After Conj He came after you left.

After Adj He was in the after part of the ship.

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AsPrep To redeem such a rebel as me.—Wesley.
As rep 10 redeem such a rever as me.— wessey.
AsConjJust as the twig is bent the tree's inclined.
AsAdv Nature, as far as art can do it, should be imitated.
AsPronSuch as I have, give I unto thee.
Before Prep He stood before the people.
BeforeConjThey kneeled before they fought.
BothAdjSituated on both sides of the river.
Both Pron Lepidus flatters both—of both is flattered.
BothConjAnd now he is both loved and respected.
ButPrepAll but me were rewarded.
ButConjI go—but I return.
ButAdvIf we go, we can but die.
But Verb I can not but rejoice at his unexpected prosperity.
Ere Prep And ere another evening's close.
EreConjAnd ere we could arrive [at] the point proposed.
ForPrepThey traveled for pleasure.
ForConjHe can not be a scholar, for he will not study.
LikePrepNature all blooming like thee.
LikeAdj Like causes produce like effects.
Like Verb We like whatever gives us pleasure.
Like Noun We shall never see the like again.
NearAdj At the near approach of the star of day.
Near Prep We live near the springs.
NearAdvBooks were never near so numerous.
Near Verb We shall near the light-house.
Neither Adj He can debate on neither side of the question.
Neither Pron We saw neither of them.
NeitherConjThe boy could neither read nor write.
NextAdjThe next generation.
NextPrepAdjectives should be placed next their substantives.
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ThatAdj
ThatRel. Pron" Him that cometh unto me, I will in no wise cast out."
That Pron. Adj Forgive me my foul murder? that can not be.
ThatConj I am glad that he has lived thus long.
Then Adv Then, when I am thy captive, talk of chains.
ThenConj Then, I'll look up.
ThenPronTill then.
TillPrepThey labored hard till night.
TillConj Till I come, give attention to reading.
TillNounHe kept his money in the till.
UntilPrepFrom morn, even until night.
UntilConj Until the day dawn.
WhatAdjAt what hour did you arrive?
WhatRel. Pron What Reason weaves, by Passion is undone.
WhatInter, Pron What does it avail?
What Exclam What! is thy servant a dog?
WithinPrepTo inscribe a circle within a circle.
WithinAdjReceived on the within bond, five hundred dollars.

OBSERVATIONS ON SOME OF THE FOREGOING WORDS.

As....When this Word introduces a Sentence, it is properly called a Conjunction.

EXAMPLE.—"As ye journey, sweetly sing."

When it introduces a Phrase, it is a Preposition, and is then generally equivalent to the Preposition for.

EXAMPLES.-1. "He gave me this as the latest news from the army."

2. "I am always fearful lest I should tell you that for news with which you are well acquainted."

The above examples clearly indicate that as is sometimes a Preposition.

REM.—Many grammarians insist that as, in the above and similar examples, "must be a Conjunction, because, in most cases, it connects words in apposition.

The same is often true of other Prepositions.

EXAMPLES.-1. In the city of New York.

2. "——thy shadowy hand was seen Writing thy name of Death."—Pollok.

We do not claim that these examples contain words precisely in apposition—as much so, however, as any words claimed to be connected by as.

As is often used (by ellipsis of one or more words) as a Pronoun. [See Rem. on than below.]

1. But.—This word, like most Conjunctions, is derived from a

Saxon Verb signifying "except"—" set aside"—" fail," etc. [See Webster's Improved Grammar.]

In the list above given, the Word retains its original signification and office.

EXAMPLE.—"I can not but rejoice."

Equivalent.-I can not fail-omit to rejoice.

2. But is also used instead of the words, if it were not, or were it not.

EXAMPLE.—"And but for these vile guns, he would himself have been a soldier."

3. But scmetimes supplies the places of a Relative Pronoun and a Negative Adverb.

EXAMPLE.—"I scarce can meet a monument but holds my younger."

Equivalent.—I scarce can meet a monument that holds not my younger.

LIKE. . When this word qualifies a Noun, it is an Adjective—when it represents its Noun, it is an Adjective Pronoun. But when it shows a relation of two words, it is a Preposition.

EXAMPLES.-1. "These armies once lived, and breathed, and felt like us."

 "Yet all great learned men, like me, Once learned to read their A, B, C."

THAN...This word always expresses comparison, and comparison implies a relation. When this relation is expressed by Words, than is a Preposition. When it is expressed by Sentences, and when Words, Phrases, or Sentences are merely connected by it, it is a Conjunction. The use of it as a Preposition is sanctioned by good authority, ancient and modern.

THAN always introduces a Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence, which constitutes a second term of a comparison of inequality.

EXAMPLES.-1. "She is more nice than wise."

"Than" connects words, and is therefore a Conjunction.

2. "Than whom none higher sat."

"Than" introduces a Phrase, and is therefore a Preposition.

3. "We have more than heart could wish."

"Than" is the object of "could wish," and introduces the Sentence which limits "more," hence—by virtue of the ellipsis—it is a Relative Pronoun. Supply the words suppressed by ellipsis, and "than" becomes a Preposition.

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Obs. 1.—Many words are used as Prepositions or Conjunctions, according as they introduce Phrases or Sentences.

Examples.-1. John arrived before me.

- "Before me" .. Is a Phrase, used to modify "arrived;" hence, Adverbial.
- "Before" Is a Preposition.
 - 2. John arrived before I did.
- "Before I did". Is a Sentence, used to modify "arrived;" hence, Adverbial.
- "Before" Is a Conjunction.
 - 8. John arrived as soon as I.
- "As I"....... Is a Phrase used to modify "arrived;" hence, Adverbial.
 - 4. John arrived as soon as I did.
- "As I did".....Is a Sentence, used to modify "arrived;" hence,

 Adverbial.
- Obs. 2.—Of the many words thus used as Prepositions and Conjunctions, custom allows two—as and than—to be followed by Pronouns in the Nominative form.
 - EXAMPLES .- 1. "Thou art wiser than I."
 - 2. "Thou art as tall as I."
 - OBS. 3.—But the Objective form is also used by our best writers.
 - Examples.—1. "It is not fit for such as us
 - To sit with rulers of the land."-W. Scott.
 - 2. "Than whom none higher sat."-Milton.
- WORTH......This word is a contraction of worthy, originally an Adjective, and commonly indicates value;—it often has the force of a Preposition.

EXAMPLE.—" He possessed an estate worth five hundred pounds per annum."

Equivalent.—" He has an annuity of five hundred pounds,"

REM.—This word is used also as a Noun.

EXAMPLE.-" He was a man of great worth."

Nor—composed of not and other—retains the offices of its elements.

Example.—" Nor will I at my humble lot repine."

Here "nor," being used to modify "repine"—is an Adverb of Negation. But because it introduces a Sentence additional to a former

Sentence, it is a Conjunction: like many other Conjunctions, it indicates the office of the Sentence which it introduces, making it negative.

SUBSTITUTION OF ELEMENTS.

OBS.—In the structure of Sentences, an Element of one form is often substituted for that of another.

1. A Letter is substituted for a Word.

EXAMPLE.—'Tis strange.

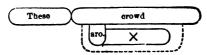


REM.—Here "'T," as an Element in the Sentence, is a representative of "it," and is a Pronoun—Subject of the Sentence. Hence, in the Nominative Case.

But "T," as an Element in the word "it," is a Letter—a Consonant—Mute—Subsequent to its vowel "I."

2. A. Word is substituted for a Phrase.

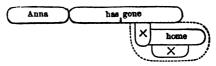
EXAMPLE 1.—These crowd around to ask him of his health.



REM. 1.—"Around," as an Element of the Sentence, is an Adverb of Place—being used as a representative of the Adverbial Phrase around him.

"Around," as an Element of its *Phrase*, is the Leader—a **Preposition**—showing a relation of "crowd" to *him* understood.

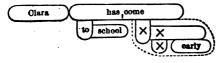
EXAMPLE 2.—Anna has gone home.



REM. 2.—" Home," as an Element in the Sentence, is an Adverb of Place—being used as a representative of the Phrase to her home.

"Home," as an Element in its *Phrase*, is the Subsequent—Word
—Noun—Common—Objective Case—Object of to understood.

EXAMPLE 3.—Clara has come to school early.



REM. 3.—"Early," as an Element in the Sentence, is an Adverb of Time—being used as a representative of the Phrase at an early hour.

"Early," as an Element in its *Phrase*, is an Adjunct—Word—Adjective—and limits *hour* understood.

For further illustrations, see Obs. 1 and 2, page 22.

REM.—A careful examination of the genius of the English language will disclose the fact, that a great majority of words perform at the same time two or more distinct offices—as individual and as representative. The RULE to be observed in parsing is, that a word should be parsed first according to its representative office in the Sentence, then according to its individual office.

EXERCISES IN THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

REM.—Teachers will find the use of the blackboard of great service in the Analysis of Sentences and of Phrases.

Of the many Models for Analysis, used by successful Teachers, the following are given, in addition to those found in Part I.

FIRST MODEL.

"An hour like this may well display the emptiness of human grandeur."

• •	BLEMENTS.	
The Modified* Subject	An hour like this	
The Pure Subject	hour.	
The Logical† Predicate	may well display the em	ptiness of human
The Modified† Predicate	may well display	•
The Pure Predicate	may display.	
The Modified Object	the emptiness of human gra	ndeur.
The Pure Object	emptiness.	
	ADJUNCTS.	
Of the Subject	f An	a Word.
Of the Buoject	··· { An	a Phrase.
Of the Predicate	well	a. Word.
Of the Object	the	a Word.
O/ WW OU/OUV	''' lof human grandaur	a Phrase.

^{*} See page 81.

[†] See page 82.

SECOND MODEL.

	OMCOM.	D MICDING.	
" How dear t	o my heart are	the scenes of my childle	hood.''
Principal Elements.			ınct Elements.
Sub "Scenes"The			
Pred "Are dear" . Are	how dear to 1	$\mathbf{ny} \ \mathbf{heart} \ \dots \ \left\{ \begin{matrix} \mathbf{How} \dots \\ \mathbf{To} \ \mathbf{my} \end{matrix} \right. \mathbf{heart} $	a Word. earta Phrase
	Thiri	Model.	
" The lo	wing HERD W	mps slowly o'er the lea.	**
The Modified Su "The lowing H	bject. RD''	The Modified Pre	dicals. r the lea."
Grammatic Subject. HEED	Adjuncts. The lowing	Grammatic Predicate	. Adjuncts. Slowly o'er the lea.
		. ~	-
LI've	TIDATATA C	AT MITTE CITATION	

EXERCISES ON THE CHART.

- REM. 1.—The following Exercises will exhibit the proper method of using the Chart in Etymological Parsing.
- REM. 2.—If the large Chart is used, the attention of the whole Class should be directed to it—one of the students using a "pointer," as he repeats the construction of each word, according to the formulæ given below.
- REM. 3.—It is well for beginners in Etymological Parsing to have the Sentence to be parsed first placed in Diagram on the blackboard.

1. Animals run.

(Animals	run	

Animals......An Element in the Sentence-Principal Element-Subject
-Word-Noun-Common-Masculine Gender-Third Person-Plural Number-Nominative Case.

Run......An Element in the Sentenge-Principal Element-Predicate-Vere-Indicative Mode-Present Tense.

2. Mary is reading.

Mary	Y is	reading
<u> </u>	<u> </u>	

- Mary......An Élement in the Sentence-Principal Element-Subject
 -Word-Noun-Proper-Feminine Gender-Third Person
 -Singulae Number-Nominative Case.
- Is reading......An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—PREDI-CATE—VERB and PARTICIPLE—Verb is in the Indicative Mode—PRESENT Tense.
- Reading......An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—used in PREDICATE with "is."

8. He might have been respected.

He might have been respected

HeAn Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—Subject
—Word—Pronoun—Personal—Masculine Gender—Third
Person—Singular Number—Nominative Case.

Might have SAN Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—PREDIbeen respected CATE—two Verbs and two Participles—Verb is in the Potential Mode—Prior Past Tense.

4. His palsied hand waxed strong.



HisAn Element in the Sentence—Adjunct—Primary—Word—
Adjective—Specifying—Possessive.

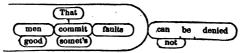
Palsied......An Element in the SENTENCE—ADJUNCT—PRIMARY—WORD—ADJECTIVE—VERBAL—INTRANSITIVE,

HandAn Element in the Sentence-Principal Element-Subject
-Word-Noun-Common-Neuter Gender-Third PersonSingular Number-Nominative Case.

Waxed strong...An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—PREDI-CATE—VERB and ADJECTIVE—Verb is in the Indicative Mode —Past Tense.

Strong.......An Element in the Sentence—Adjective used in Predicate with "waxed."

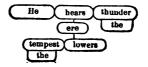
5. That good men sometimes commit faults, can not be denied.



That good men as An Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—Subject so met im es . —Sentence—Substantive—Simple—Transitive.

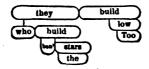
Can be denied... An Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—PREDI-CATE—two VERBS and a PARTICIPLE—Verb is in the POTENTIAL Mode—PRESENT Tense,

6. He hears the thunder ere the tempest lowers.



HeAn Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—Subject —Word—Pronoun—Personal—Masculine Gender—Third
Person—Singular Number—Nominative Case.
HearsAn Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—Predicate—Vere—Indicative Mode—Present Tense.
TheAn Element in the Sentence—Adjunct—Primary—Word—Adjective—Specifying—Pure.
ThunderAn Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—Object —Word—Noun—Common—Neuter Gender—Third Person —Singular Number—Objective Case.
Ere the tem-{An Element in the SENTENCE-ADJUNCT-PRIMARY-SEN- pest lowers} TENCE-ADVERS-INTRANSITIVE.

7. Too low they build who build beneath the stars.



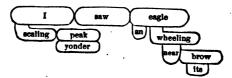
-Adverb-of Degree.

.An Element in the SENTENCE-ADJUNCT-SECONDARY-WORD

Low	Word-
TheyAn Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—S —WORD—PERSONAL—MASCULINE Gender—THIRD F PLURAL Number—Nominative Case.	
BuildAn Element in the Sentence—Principal Element— CATE—Verb—Indicative Mode—Present Tense.	-Predi-
Who build be- An Element in the Sentence—Adjunct—Primary—Se neath the stars —Adjective—Simple—Intransitive.	NTENCE
Who	E Gen-
BuildAn Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT— INDICATIVE Mode—PRESENT Tense.	-Verb
Beneath the An Element in the SENTENCE—ADJUNCT—SECONDARY—	PHRASE

REM.—In the analysis of a Complex Sentence (see Obs. p. 62), an Auxiliary Sentence is found to perform an individual office, and accordingly it is parsed as one Elymological Element of the Principal Sentence. After it has been thus parsed, it should itself be analyzed, and the Words and Phrases of which it is composed be parsed according to their respective offices. The same remark is applicable to Phrases. [See Exercise 7, above, and 2, below.]

8. "Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle wheeling near its brow."



Scaling youder (An]	Element in the	Sentence—an	ADJUNCT—PRIMARY—4
peak PHR	ASE-ADJECTIVE-	-ParticipialT	RANSITIVE.
IAn Element in the SENTENCE—PRINCIPAL ELEMENT—SUBJECT			
-Word-Pronoun-Personal - Masculine Gender - First			
Person—Singular Number—Objective Case.			
SawAn Element in the SENTENCE-PRINCIPAL ELEMENT-PREDI-			
CAMP	_VPDD_INDICAL	PAR MARA_PAR	Tonce

Eagle......An Element in the Sentence—Peincipal Element—Object—
Word—Noun—Common—Masculine Gender—Third Person
—Singular Number—Objective Case,

Wheeling near An Element in the Sentence—an Adjunct—Primary—its brow...... Phirase—Adjective—Participial—Intransitive.

Near its brow...An Element in the Phrase—an Adjunct—Secondary— Phrase—Adverbial—Prepositional—Intransitive.

Analysis of Phrases by the Chart.

EXERCISES.

1. In the beginning (a Prepositional Phrase).



2. "Scaling yonder peak" (a Participial Phrase).



Scaling.........An Element in the Phrase—Principal Element—the Leader
—— ** Participle—Transitive.

Yonder......An Element in the Phrase—an Adjunct—Word—Adjective.

PeakAn Element in the Phrase—Principal Element—the Subsequent—a Word—Noun—Object.

8. " The time having arrived" (an Independent Phrase).



4. To bestow many favors (an Infinitive Phrase).



REM.—Exercises like the above are well calculated to *prepare* the Student for Exercises in Syntax; and when he shall have learned the Rules of Syntax, he should combine the above Exercises with the application of those Rules.

PART III.

SYNTAX.

REM.1.—In PART II. we have discussed Words considered as Elements of Language; embracing,

- 1. The Classification of Words, according to their offices.
- The Modification of such Words as vary their forms to correspond with changes in their offices.
- REM. 2.—We have now to consider the *Relations* of the various Elements of Language to one another, in the construction of Sentences.
- DEF. 163.—Syntax treats of the construction of Sentences by determining the relation, agreement, and arrangement of Words, and of other Elements.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES AND FACTS

To be noticed in the Analysis and Synthesis of Sentences and Phrases.

CLASSIFICATION.

A Sentence is an assemblage of Words, so arranged as to express an entire proposition.

GRAMMATICAL DISTINCTIONS.

REM.—The Grammatical distinctions are suggested by the *structure* or *mutual dependence* of the Sentences, and are indicated by the Diagrams of the Sentences.

II.—In its structure	
A Sentence is	Transitive, Intransitive, or Mixed.

III.—In its form

A Sentence is	Simple, Compound, or Complex.
IV.—The parts constituting a Complex Sentence are	Principal, or Auxiliary.
V.—Auxiliary Sentences are in their offices.	Substantive, Adjective, Adverbial, or Independent.

VI.—An Intransitive Sentence has no Object.

Let the Pupil make an Intransitive Sentence.

VII.—A Transitive Sentence has an Object.

Let the Pupil make a Transitive Sentence.

VIII.—A Mixed Sentence has one or more transitive and one or more intransitive Predicates.

Let the Pupil make a Mixed Sentence.

IX.—A Simple Sentence has all its Principal Parts single.

Let the Pupil make a Simple Sentence.

X.—A Compound Sentence has some of its Principal Parts compound.

Let the Pupil make a Compound Sentence.

XI.—A Complex Sentence contains one or more Auxiliary Sentences, as Constituent Elements.

Let the Pupil make a Complex Sentence.

XII.—A Principal Sentence asserts a Principal Proposition.

XIII.—An Auxiliary Sentence asserts a Dependent Proposition.

Let the Pupil make a Complex Sentence, and distinguish the Principal Sentence from the Auxiliary Sentence.

XIV.—A Substantive Sentence is used as the Subject or the Object of a Sentence, or as the Object of a Phrase.

Let the Pupil make a Substantive Sentence.

XV.—An Adjective Sentence is a Sentence that is used as an Adjunct of a Substantive.

Let the Pupil make an Adjective Sentence.

XVI.—An Adverbial Sentence is a Sentence that modifies a Verb, an Adjective, or an Adverb.

Let the Pupil make an Adverbial Sentence.

XVII.—An Independent Sentence is not grammatically connected with any other Sentence—or it constitutes a Logical Adjunct of a Substantive.

Let the Pupil make an Independent Sentence.

RHETORICAL DISTINCTIONS.

REMARK.—The Rhetorical distinctions are suggested rather by a different arrangement of the words composing the Sentences:—They are not indicated by Diagrams.

XVIII.—In their Rhetorical distinctions

	Declarative, Conditional,
1	Conauronai,
Sentences are	Interrogative,
	<i>Imperative</i> , or
	Exclamatory.

XIX.—A Declarative Sentence is a sentence that asserts a proposition.

A Declarative Sentence may be.. { Positive, or Negative.

Make a Declarative Sentence—Positive—Negative.

XX.—A Conditional Sentence is a sentence that asserts a conditional or hypothetical proposition.

Make a Conditional Sentence.

XXI.—An Interrogative Sentence is a sentence, so arranged as to ask a question.

Make an Interrogative Sentence.

XXII.—An Imperative Sentence is a sentence used to command, exhort, or entreat.

Make an Imperative Sentence.

XXIII.—An Exclamatory Sentence is a sentence that expresses a sudden or intense emotion.

Make an Exclamatory Sentence.

XXIV.—Analysis of a sentence is the act of resolving it into its Constituent Elements.

XXV.—Synthesis of a sentence is the act of properly selecting and placing together its Elements.

XXVI.—A Sentence consists of { Principal Elements, and Adjunct Elements.

XXVII.—The Principal Elements of a Sentence are those Words necessary to make the unqualified assertion.

Make a Sentence having Principal Elements only.

XXVIII.—The Adjuncts of a Sentence are the Elements used to modify or describe other Elements in the Sentence.

Make a Sentence having Adjuncts.

XXX.—The Subject of a Sentence is that of which something is asserted.

XXXI.—The Predicate of a Sentence is the Word or Words that assert something of the Subject.

XXXII.—The Object of a Sentence is that on which the act expressed by the Predicate terminates,

Let each Pupil make a Sentence, and name the Subject, the Predicate, and the Object.

XXXIII.—The Subject of a Sentence may be { A Word, A Phrase, of A Sentence may be } A Sentence.

- Let each Pupil make a Sentence having a Word Subject.

 Let each Pupil make a Sentence having a Phrase Subject.

 Let each Pupil make a Sentence having a Sentence Subject.
- Let each Pupil make a Sentence having a Word Object.

 Let each Pupil make a Sentence having a Phrase Object.

 Let each Pupil make a Sentence having a Sentence Object.

ENGLIS.	O GRAMMAN-	FARI III.
Let each Pupil r 1. A Common Noun. 2. A Proper Noun. 3. A Personal Propos	4. A 5. A	aving for its Subject— Relative Pronoun. n Interrogative Pronoun. n Adjective Pronoun.
		as Objects of Sentences.
XXXVI.—Nouns an are of the) * '	asculine Gender, eminine Gender, or euter Gender.
XXXVII.—Nouns as are of the	$\operatorname{Ad}\operatorname{Pronouns}\left\{egin{array}{l} oldsymbol{F} \\ oldsymbol{Sol} \\ oldsymbol{T} \end{array} ight.$	irst Person, econd Person, or hird Person.
XXXVIII.—Nouns nouns are of the		ngular Number, or Jural Number.
Let the Pupil main and Pronouns of the di		g for their Subjects Nouns ersons, and Numbers.
Now use the san	ne words as Objec	ts of Sentences.
XXXIX.—The Subj	ECT of a Sentence	is in the Subjective Case.
XL.—The OBJECT of	a Sentence is in t	the Objective Case.
XLI.—The GRAMMA PREDICATE of a Sente	TICAL (A Verb.	with Another Verb,
Let the Pupil m		taining elements of each
·	Indicative Mode,	Prior Past Tense, Past Tense, Prior Present Tense, Present Tense, Prior Future Tense, Future Tense.
XLII.—A VERB in Predicate may be the	Potential Mode,	Prior Past Tense, Past Tense, Prior Present Tense, Present Tense.
	Subjunctive, Mode,	Past Tense, Present Tense.
	Imperative Mode,	Present Tense.

Let the Pupil make Sentences having Verbs in each of the Modes and Tenses mentioned.

XLV.—Primary Adjuncts are attached to the Principal Parts of a Sentence or of a Phrase.

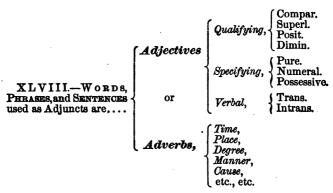
XLVI.—Secondary Adjuncts are attached to other Adjuncts.

XLVII.—Adjuncts may consist of. . { Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

Let the Pupil make Sentences containing Word Adjuncts.

Let the Pupil make Sentences containing Phrase Adjuncts.

Let the Pupil make Sentences containing Sentence Adjuncts.



XLIX.—Conjunctions introduce Sentences and connect Words, Phrases, and Sentences.

L.—A Preposition shows a relation of its object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

LI.—An Exclamation has no dependent construction.

LII.—A Word of Euphony is, in its office, chiefly Rhetorical.

II. PHRASES.

LIII.—A Phrase is a combination of Words not constituting an entire proposition, but performing a distinct office in the structure of a Sentence or of another Phrase.

LIV.—A PHRASE consists of.......

| Principal Elements and | Adjunct Elements.

LV.—The **Principal Elements** of a Phrase are those words necessary to its structure.

Let the Pupil make a Phrase having Principal Elements only.

LVI.—The Adjuncts of a Phrase are Elements used to modify or describe other Elements.

Let the Pupil make a Phrase having Adjuncts.

LVIII.—The Leader of a Phrase is the Word used to introduce the Phrase.

LIX.—The Subsequent of a Phrase is the Element which follows the Leading Word as its Object.

Let the Pupil make Phrases, and distinguish the *Leaders* from the *Subsequents*.

Let the Pupil make Phrases having Adjective Words—Phrases—Sentences.

LXII.—A PHRASE having a Transitive Verb or Participle as a Principal Element, is a Transitive Phrase.

Let the Pupil make a Transitive Phrase; 1. Participial—2. Infinitive.

LXIII.—A Phrase whose Subsequent is a Noun or a Pronoun, or a Verb or a Participle having no Object, is an Intransitive Phrase.

Let the Pupil make an Intransitive Phrase; 1. Prepositional

—2. Participial—3. Infinitive—4. Independent.

LXIV.—A Phrase is, in form \dots $\begin{cases} \textbf{Prepositional,} \\ \textbf{Participial,} \\ \textbf{Infinitive,} \text{ or} \\ \textbf{Independent.} \end{cases}$

LXV.—A Prepositional Phrase is one that is introduced by a Preposition—having a Substantive Element as its object of relation.

Let the Pupil make a Prepositional Phrase.

LXVI.—A Participial Phrase is one that is introduced by a Participle, being followed by an Object of an action, or by an Adjunct.

Let the Pupil make a Participial Phrase.

LXVII.—An Infinitive Phrase is one that is introduced by the Preposition To—having a Verb in the Infinitive Mode as its Object of relation.

Let the Pupil make an Infinitive Phrase.

LXVIII.—An Independent Phrase is one that is introduced by a Noun or a Pronoun—having a Participle depending on it.

Let the Pupil make an Independent Phrase.

LXIX.—A Phrase is Compound when it has two or more Leaders or Subsequents.

Let the Pupil make a Compound Phrase—Compound Leaders—Compound Subsequent.

LXX.—A PHRASE is Complex when one of its Principal Parts is qualified by another Phrase.

Let the Pupil make a Complex Phrase.

LXXI.—A PHRASE is **Mixed** when it has one or more *Transitive*, and one or more *Intransitive*, Subsequents.

Let the Pupil make a Mixed Phrase.

REM. 1.—Words combined into a Sentence, have a relation to each other—a relation which often determines their forms. The Principal Modifications of words, as treated in PART II. of this work, are those of form—and these forms vary according to their relation to other words.

But the form does not always determine the office of words in a Sentence.

I may say, "Frederick assisted James,"

and "James assisted Frederick."

Here, although I use the same words and the same form of those words, I make two widely different assertions. The difference in

the assertions in these examples is caused by the change of position of the Words. Hence the following laws of Agreement and Arrangement of words in the construction of Sentences.

REM. 2.—As Diagrams are of great service in constructing Sentences, by serving as tests of the grammatical correctness of a composition, they are inserted in PART III. It is hoped that the Teacher will not fail to require the Class to write Sentences which shall contain words in every possible condition, and in every variety of modification. Young Pupils and beginners should be required to place the Sentences in Diagrams.

SYNTAX OF SENTENCES.

OF THE PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.

REM.—While a single Word may be the "sign of an idea," it can not alone constitute a Sentence. This can be done only by a combination of Words, properly arranged. Hence, only in their combinations are Words subject to Syntax.

PRIN.—The **basis** of every Sentence is the **Substantive** Word representing the person or the thing subjected to discussion.

By Grammarians, this Word is called the Subject.

I. MATERIAL OF THE SUBJECT.

Prin. 1.—The Subject of a Sentence must be a Substantive.

EXAMPLES.

- - civil power."

 4. "To give good gifts and to be benevolent, are often very different things."

OBS. 1.—The Subject of a Sentence may be ascertained by its answering the Interrogatives Who? or What? placed before the Predicate. Thus, in the Examples above—

What "secures happiness?"....Ans.—"Virtue."

Who "plants his footsteps in Ans.—" He."

What "is a self-evident truth?". . Ans .- " That all men are cre-

ated equal."

COMPOUND SUBJECTS.

OBS. 2.—Two or more Subjects may be common to the same Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

Words.....1. "Revelry and Riot pervade the city."

Phrases ... 2. " Receiving calls and returning them occupy the entire day."

Sentences .. 3. Where he went and when he will return are alike unknown to me.

REM.—Whatever is peculiar to Pronouns, is discussed under the Rule for Pronouns. We now proceed to discuss what is common to Nouns, Pronouns, Phrases, and Sentences, considered as Subjects of Sentences.

II. LIMITATIONS OF THE SUBJECT.

OBS. 3.—The Subject may be described or limited—

- 1. By declaring an attribute of it; and
- 2. By assuming an attribute of it.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. Declared .- Arthur sleeps, Arthur is sleeping, Arthur is sleepy.
- 2. Assumed.—Sleepy Arthur has no lesson.

PRIN. 1.—The Subject is limited By its Predicate, By its Adjuncts.

PRIN. 2.—Every Subject must have a Predicate expressed or implied.

Examples.—1.	Who studies Gramman	. 2. John.		
(1.)				_
who s	tudies Grammar	John X	<u></u> XX	ر

OBS. 4.—The Subject may be limited by Adjuncts.

And these Adjuncts are Specifying, Qualifying, or Verbal Adjectives, and may be.... Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

EXAMPLES.

1. Words.—(a) One Word...A man met me.

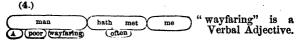


(b) Two Words...A poor man met me.



Adjective.

(c) Three Words...A poor wayfaring man met me.



(d) Three Words and a Phrase...A poor wayfaring man of grief hath met me.



- (e) Three Words, a Phrase and a Sentence.
 - " A poor wayfaring man of grief Hath often met me [on my way], Who sued [so humbly] for relief, [That I could never answer Nay]."



EXERCISES.

Let each Pupil make a Sentence having

- 1. Its Subject limited by one \{ 1. A Specifying Adjectice, \ 2. A Qualifying Adjectice, \ 3. A Verbal Adjectice.
 - 2. Its Subject limited by two Words.
 - 3. Its Subject limited by three or more Words.
 - 4. Its Subject limited by a Phrase { 1. Prepositional, 2. Participial, 3. Infinitive.

- 5. Its Subject limited by a Sentence \{ 1. Transitive, \} 2. Intransitive.
- 6. Its Subject limited by a Word and a Phrase.
- 7. Its Subject limited by a Word, a Phrase, and a Sentence.
- 8. Its Subject limited by a Logical Adjunct-Word. (See p. 34.)
- 9. Its Subject limited by a Logical Adjunct-Phrase. (See p. 34.)
- 10. Its Subject limited by a Logical Adjunct—Sentence. (See pp. 34, 48.)

III. THE CONDITION OF THE SUBJECT.



RULE 1.—The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Subjective Case.

SUBJECT WORD.

PRIN.—A Subject Word must be a Noun or a Pronoun.

(a.) THE FORM OF THE SUBJECT.

REM.—Because English Nouns are not varied in form to denote the Case (except the Possessive), their Case can not be determined by their forms. Hence, much attention is required in giving them their proper position in a Sentence.

But when the Subject of a Sentence is a Personal Pronoun, or the Relative or the Interrogative who, the form indicates the Subject.

Note 1.—The Subject of a Sentence should have its appropriate form.

EXAMPLES .- 1. "I come not here to talk."

- 2. " You know too well the story of our thraldom."
- 8. "Thou art perched aloft on the beetling crag."
- 4. "Heeds he not the bursting anguish?"
- 5. "She could not pass the Regents' examination."
- 6. " It came and faded like a wreath of mist."
- 7. "We are watchers of a beacon."
- 8. " Ye have set at naught all my counsel."
- 9. " They have gone from their mountain-home."
- 10. "Who will show us any good?"
- 11. "When Greek meets Greek, comes the tug of war."

Errors in the Form of the Subject.

- REM. 1.—Errors in the forms of the Subject are limited to Pronouns.
- REM. 2.—Let the Pupils correct the errors of the following Sentences, and give the authority for every criticism, by a proper reference to Rule I., or to Notes and Observations under the Rule.
 - 1. "I must protect those boys, for them are my friends."

That is not proper, because "them," which is intended for the Subject of "are friends," has not the form of the Subject. Change "them" to "they," "the appropriate form" for the Subject, and the sentence will read—they are my friends.

Thus correct the following errors by Note 1.

- 2. "My sister and me were both invited."
- 8. "We have not learned whom else were invited."
- 4. "Scotland and thee did each in other live."-Dryden.
- 5. "Tell me in sadness whom is she you love."-Shakepeare.
- 6. "Him I most loved fell at Gettysburg."
- 7. " Them are the boys we saw."
- 8. "The rustic's sole response was, ' Them's my sentiments.""
- 9. "Has thee been to the yearly meeting?"
- 10. "John and me go to the same school."
- 11. "Mother, do you care if us girls have a little dance in the parlor?"
- 12. "Anna says that her and me can never learn much unless we study evenings."
 - 13. "Let's you and me take a walk in the grove."
 - 14. "You are the masters, and not me."
 - 15. "He will in nowise cast out whomsoever cometh unto him."
 - 16. "He feared his men would be cut off, whom he saw were off their guard."
- 17. "Whomsoever will compel thee to go a mile, go with him twain."—Dymond's Essays.
 - 18. We are to blame, and not them.
- 19. "The king of the Samaritans, whom we may imagine was no small prince, restored the prisoners."
 - 20. "I know not whom else are expected."

(b.) Position of the Subject.

Note 2.—In position, the Subject of a Sentence commonly precedes the Verb.

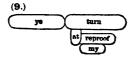
EXAMPLES.—1. Anna sings. (8.) (Anna sings.

- 2. Resources ARE DEVELOPED.
- 8. Virtue secures happiness.



EXCEPTION 1.—When the Verb is in the Imperative Mode, it precedes the Subject.

EXAMPLE.—" Turn YE, turn YE, at my reproof."



EXCEPTION 2.—When the word there is used only to introduce the Sentence.

Examples.-1. "There is a calm for those who weep."

 "There breathes not a SOUND, While friends in their sadness are gathering round."

Exception 3.—By the poets and public speakers, for rhetorical effect.

Examples .-- 1. "Loud peals the THUNDER."

2. " Perish the groveling THOUGHT."

EXCEPTION 4.—A Sentence having a Noun or a Pronoun in Predicate, is often transposed. (See p. 555.)

EXAMPLES.-1. "The proper study of mankind is man."

2. "A train-band captain, eke was he."

3. "His pavilion were dark waters and thick clouds."

EXCEPTION 5.—The Subject follows the Predicate, or the first Word of the Predicate, in *Declarative* Sentences, when the Conjunction if, used to introduce a conditional or modifying Sentence, is omitted.

EXAMPLE.—" Dost THOU not, Hassan, lay these dreams aside,
I'll plunge thee headlong in the whelming tide."

EXCEPTION 6.—In Interrogative Sentences, the Subject is placed after the Verb, first.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Heeds HE not the bursting anguish ?"

2. Is HE injured?—3. Is SHE kind?—4. Is HE a scholar?—5. Must I leave thee?—6. May I go?

Obs. 1.—But the Interrogatives who, which, and what, used as Subjects, precede their Verbs.

Examples .- " Who will show us any good ?"

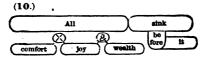
"WHAT can compensate for loss of character?"

"Which shall be taken first ?"

Obs. 2.—When one word includes in its signification many others, expressed in the same connection, the general term is the proper Subject of the Verb; and the included terms may be re-

garded as explanatory, and, therefore, independent in construction. (See Independent Case, p. 88.)

EXAMPLES.-" All sink before it-comfort, joy, and wealth."



Some teachers prefer to supply the ellipsis—which is not improper.

OMITTED SUBJECT.

NOTE 3.—The Subject may be suppressed only when the sense is sufficiently clear without it.

EXAMPLE.—" Washington, when a boy, was remarkable for his manliness."

When he was a boy. This is correct, because it is sufficiently clear.

ERROR.—" William came to school early; but lost his books on the way, had no lesson. Say having lost his books on the way, he had no lesson.

Obs. 3.—The Subject of an Imperative Verb is commonly suppressed.

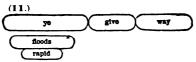
Example.—"[] Take each man's censure, but [] reserve thy judgment."

Obs. 4.—But it is sometimes expressed.

Example.—" Go ye into all the world."

OBS. 5.—It is sometimes accompanied by an explanatory word.

EXAMPLE.—" Ye rapid FLOODS, give way." (See "Independent Case.")



Note 4.—Unnecessary repetition of the Subject should be avoided.

Obs. 6.—This principle is violated in the following Examples.

- 1. The people they are foolish.
- 3. Our boys they all go to school.

Obs. 7.—But this practice is allowable, when necessary to a proper rhetorical effect, or to complete the Rhythm in verse.

EXAMPLES.—1. Our Fathers, where are they? And the Prophets, do they live forever?

2. His teeth they chatter, chatter still.

Obs. 8.—The agent of an action is commonly the Subject of the Sentence, but the agent of an action expressed by an Infinitive Verb, may be in the Subjective or in the Objective Case.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. Subjective .- 1. John was invited to go.
- 2. Objective. -2. I invited HIM to go. -3. It is best for me to remain.
- Obs. 9.—The agent of an action expressed by a Participle is commonly in the Possessive Case.

EXAMPLES.—1. I heard of your going to Boston.

2. John's joining the army was unexpected by his friends.

OBS. 10.—But it may be in the Subjective, in the Objective, and in the Independent Case.

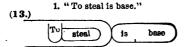
EXAMPLES.

Subjective.—1. "Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle Objective.—2. Wheeling near its brow."

Independent .- 3. The hour having arrived, we commenced the exercises.

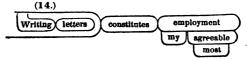
SUBJECT PHRASE.

OBS. 11.—A Subject Phrase constitutes one distinct Element in the structure of a Sentence, and should be construed and parsed in the same manner as a Subject Word. Thus,



"To steal" is a Phrase—in form, Infinitive; in office, Substantive; for it is the Subject of "is base."

2. Writing letters constitutes my most agreeable employment.



"Writing letters" is a Phrase—in form, Participial; in office, Substantive; for it is the Subject of "constitutes employment." Obs. 12.—A Phrase used as the Subject of a Sentence is always in the Third Person, Singular Number.

Obs. 13.—After a Phrase as such has been parsed, it should be analyzed, by resolving it into its constituent Elements. Thus, in the Phrase "to steal," "To"...is the Leader...a Preposition. "Steal"...is the Subsequent...a Verb...Infinitive Mode...Present Tense...and Object of the Preposition "to."

And in the Phrase "writing letters," "Writing"...is the Leader ...a Participle...Active Present. "Letters"...is the Subsequent ...a Noun...Common...Third Person...Plural Number...Objective Case.

FORM OF THE SUBJECT PHRASE.

Obs. 14.—The Phrases commonly used as Subjects of Sentences, are the *Infinitive* and the *Participial*—Prepositional and Independent Phrases being seldon thus used. (See Clark's Analysis, page 109, note.)

Participial.-1. Making Sentences is a profitable exercise.

Infinitive.-2. To make Sentences according to order requires some skill.

Let each Pupil make a Sentence having a Participial Phrass for its Subject.

Let each Pupil make a Sentence having an Infinitive Phrase as its Subject.

POSITION OF THE SUBJECT PHRASE.

Note 5.—In Position, the Subject Phrase commonly precedes its Predicate.

EXAMPLES .-- 1. To do good is the DUTY of all men.

Managing the household affairs now constitutes the sum of my employments.

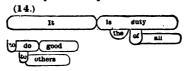
Obs. 15.—Exception.—The Subject Phrase sometimes follows its Predicate.

EXAMPLE.—"The sure way to be cheated is, to fancy ourselves more cunning than others."

REM. 1.—" To fancy ourselves more cunning than others," is the Subject. "Is way," is the Predicate.

REM. 2.—This position generally obtains, when the Indefinite Pronoun it is placed instead of the Phrase. "It" precedes, and the Phrase follows the Verb.

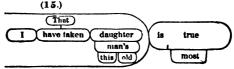
EXAMPLE.—It is the duty of all to do good to others.



REM. 3.—In parsing Examples like these, we parse "it" as the grammatical Subject of the Sentence; and the Phrase as explanatory of the Pronoun it—used to define the Indefinite Word—and is, in its office, analogous to a Word used to explain a preceding Noun. (See Independent Case, Obs. 2, p. 88.)

SUBJECT SENTENCES.

"That I have taken this old man's daughter is most true."



OBS. 16.—In Examples like the above we have two Sentences—one, *Principal*, the other *Auxiliary* or *Subordinate*, both together constituting a Complex Sentence. (See p. 42.) The Auxiliary Sentence is an Element in the Principal—the *Subject*, and should be parsed accordingly.

Thus, in the above complex Sentence, the Principal Sentence is Simple, Intransitive, having one Subject—"That I have taken this old man's daughter;" one Predicate—"is true;" and one Adjunct—"most."

Obs. 17.—A Sentence used as the Subject of another Sentence, is always in the Third Person, Singular Number.

Obs. 18.—After an Auxiliary Sentence has been parsed, as one Element in its Principal Sentence, it should be analyzed by resolving it into its constituent Elements. Thus, in the Auxiliary Sentence given above,

- "That" Introduces the Sentence; hence, a Conjunction.
- "I"..... Is the Subject of its Sentence; hence, a Substantive.
- "Have taken". Is the Predicate; a Verb and a Participle.
- "This"..... Is an Adjunct of "man" ['s]; hence, an Adjective.
- "Old"...... Is an Adjunct of "man" ['s]; hence, an Adjective.

- "Man's"......Is an Adjunct of "daughter;" hence, an Adjective.
 "Daughter"...Is the Object of "have taken;" hence, a Substan
 - tive.

Obs. 19.—The Subject Sentence is commonly—not always—introduced by the Conjunction "that." (See Examples below.)

Position of Subject Sentences.

Note 6.—A Subject Sentence is placed before its Predicate.

Examples .- 1. " That we differ in opinion is not strange."

2. "How he came by it, shall be disclosed in the next chapter."

OBS. 20.—EXCEPTIONS.—When the Pronoun it is substituted for a Subject Sentence, the Pronoun precedes, and the Sentence for which it stands is placed after the Verb.

EXAMPLE.—"It is probable that John will come."



OBS. 21.—In parsing Sentences like the above, we are to parse "it" as the grammatical Subject of the Principal Sentence, and the whole Auxiliary Sentence as explanatory of the word "it"—a Logical Adjunct of "it." (See "Logical Adjunct," p. 34.)

EXERCISES.

EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

Let the Class make Sentences, which shall be correct examples of the several *Notes*, Observations, and Remarks, under Rule 1.

MODEL.

1. Friend after friend departs.



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS	Subject" Friend" Predicate." departs."	Simple Sentence, Intransitive.
Adjunct Element	§ Of the Subject. § Of the Predicate" A	fter friend".a Phrase.
THE LEADER		
THE SUBSEQUENT	Friend	a Noun.

PARSED BY THE CHART.

"Friend"..... is an Element in the Sentence.

Principal Element.

Subject.

Word.

Noun.

Common.

Third Person.

Third I cison.

Singular Number.

Subjective Case—according to

Rule 1st. The Subject of a Sentence must be in the Subjective Case.

Thus analyze all the Sentences in the following Examples, and parse the Subjects of each.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES.

- 2. There is no union here of hearts, That finds not here an end;
- Were this frail world our final rest, Living or dying none were blest.
- 4. Thus star by star declines, Till all are passed away:
- 5. As morning high and higher shines, To pure and perfect day:
- Nor sink those stars in empty night, But hide themselves in heaven's own light.
- 7. "Rewarding and punishing actions by any other rule, would appear much harder to be accounted for by minds formed as he has formed ours."—Bishop Buller.
 - 8. "What time he took orders, doth not appear."-Life of Butler.
 - 9. "That every day has its pains and sorrows, is universally experienced."
 - 10. "My hopes and fears start up alarmed."
 - 11. "Who shall tempt, with wandering feet, The dark, unfathomed, infinite abyss?"
 - 12. " Not a drum was heard, nor a funeral note,"
 - 18. "Not half of our heavy task was done."
 - 14. "Few and short were the prayers we said."
 - 15. " A chieftain's daughter seemed the maid."
 - 16. "Her satin snood, her silken plaid, Her golden brooch, such birth betrayed."

SYNTAX OF THE PREDICATE.

REM.—The Predicate

1. Absolutely,
2. Conditionally,
3. Potentially,
4. Imperatively, or
5. Interrogatively,

1. Existence,
2. State,
3. Condition,
4. Change, or
5. Act performed

I. MATERIAL OF THE PREDICATE.

PRIN.—There can be no Predicate without a Verb.

Obs. 1.—The Verb in Predicate may stand alone, or it may have other words before or after it.

Obs. 2.—The various forms of Predicates are exhibited in the following

Examples.

1. A Verb	Boys study.
	We recite.
2. A Verb and a Participle	Boys are studying.
-	Lessons are recited.
8. A Verb and an Adjective	Boys are studious.
	Lessons are difficult.
4. A Verb and a Noun	
	Books are helps.
5. A Verb and a Pronoun	
	Was it you?
6. A Verb and two Participles	
	Lessons have been recited.
7. A Verb, a Participle, and an Adjective	
,,,,,, .	Lessons had been difficult.
8. A Verb, a Participle, and a Noun	
• · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	They have been classmates.
9. A Verb, a Participle, and a Pronoun	
o	It had been we.
10. A Verb and a Verb	
	We can recite.
11. A Verb, a Verb, and a Participle	Boys may be studyana.
	Lessons should be recited.
12. A Verb, a Verb, and an Adjective	
	Books may be beneficial.
13. A Verb, a Verb, and a Noun	
,, ,,	Books may be companions.

- A Verb, a Verb, a Participle and a Participle Boys should have been studying. Lessons will have been recited.
- A Verb, a Verb, a Participle and an Adjective. Boys should have been studious.
 Lessons may have been difficult.
- 17. A Verb, a Verb, a Participle and a Noun...Boys might have been students. We should have been friends.
- 18. A Verb, a Verb, a Participle and a Pronoun. It may have been he. Who could it have been?

OBS. 3.—From the above complete list of Predicates of Simple English Sentences, we see,

- That the Predicate may consist of one, two, three, or four words.
- 2. That a Verb may be a complete Predicate.
- 3. That more frequently a Verb is only a part of a Predicate.
- 4. That the first word must be a Verb.
- That the last word may be a Verb, a Participle, an Adjective, a Noun, or a Pronoun.
- 6. That the last word in Predicate is the Principal Word.
- 7. That the other words are Auxiliary—indicating Voice, Mode, or Tense in addition to the office of asserting the existence, the attribute, the office, or the act of the Subject.

Hence,

OBS. 4.—In parsing a Predicate, we should first parse the entire Predicate as one individual element, and then distinguish the various offices of its several words. [See Model, p. 999.]

Obs. 5.—Besides the above forms and combinations of words in Predicate, we have certain idiomatic forms of Sentences, in which Phrases occur in Predicate.

Examples.—1. I am to go, for I must go.



2. John was in hopes of receiving the prize, Equivalent.—John hoped to receive the prize.

8. "To feel is to be fired," (20.) to feel

to helieve is to feel

And to believe, Lorenzo, is to feel,"
 Equiv.—If we believe, we feel, and if we feel we are fired.

REM.—The use of Phrases in Predicate is not often elegant, and should generally be avoided when other equivalent forms will express the same thought.

EXERCISES.

Let each Pupil make a Sentence having for its Predicate-

- 1. One Verb.
- 2. Two Verbs.
- 8. One Verb and a Participle
- o. One verb and a rarriciple
- 4. One Verb and an Adjective.
- 5. One Verb and a Noun.
- 6. One Verb and a Pronoun.
- 7. Two Verbs and a Participle.
- 8. Two Verbs and an Adjective.
- 9. Two Verbs and a Noun.
- 10. Two Verbs and a Pronoun.
- 10. Two veros and a Pronour
- 11. One Verb and two Participles.
- 12. One Verb, a Participle, and an Adjective.
- 13. One Verb, a Participle, and a Noun.
- 14. One Verb, a Participle, and a Pronoun.
- 15. Two Verbs, a Participle, and an Adjective.
- 16. Two Verbs, a Participle, and a Noun.
- 17. Two Verbs, a Participle, and a Pronoun.
- 18. Two Verbs and two Participles.

II. Modifications of the Predicate.

REM.—As the Subject is limited (see p. 000),

- 1. Logically, by its Predicate, and
- 2. Grammatically, by its Adjuncts; so

Prin.—The Predicate may be modified,

- 1. Logically, by its Object, and
- 2. Grammatically, by its Adjuncts.

DEF. 164.—Predicates that have Objects are called **Transitive Predicates**.

EXAMPLES.-1. Boys study Grammar.

2. Columbus discovered America.

Def. 165.—Predicates that have no Objects are called Intransitive Predicates.

EXAMPLES.—1. Boys play. 2. I might have been studying.
3. America was discovered.

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DEF. 166.—Predicates that have Adjuncts are called **Modified Predicates**.

EXAMPLES .- 1. Charles calls often.

2. "We have come from the mountains."

PRIN.—Adjuncts of the Predicate may be Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

EXAMPLES.

Words1. "We shall soon go hence."

2. " On, still on, he PRESSES, and forever."

Phrases 8. "Time slept on flowers."

4. "I HAVE BEEN SITTING by the hillside."

Sentences .. 5. " Where'er we turn, thy glories shine."

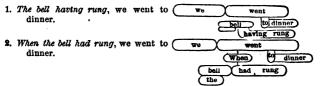
6. "If you have a proper self-respect, you will not be layish of your company to any one."

PRIN.—All modifications of Verbs, Participles, or Adjectives in Predicate are Adverbs. But Nouns and Pronouns in Predicate may be modified or limited by Adjectives.

Prin.—Adjuncts of the Predicate | Logical and may be...... | Grammatical.

Obs. 1.—Logical Adjuncts of Predicates generally consist of Independent Phrases substituted for Adverbial Sentences.

EXAMPLES.



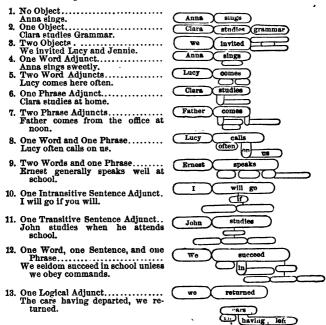
REM.—"The bell having rung," is an Independent *Phrase.* (See p. 25.) "When the bell had rung," is an Auxiliary *Sentence.* (See p. 45.) In the above examples, both the Sentence and the Phrase alike modify "proceeded," as to time. But

The *Phrase*, having no word making a grammatical connection with the Predicate, is said to be a *Logical Adjunct*; whereas,

The Sentence—being joined to the Predicate by the Adverbial Conjunction "when"—is a Grammatical Adjunct.

EXERCISES.

Let each Pupil make a Sentence* whose Predicate shall have



Prin.—The same Subject may have more than one Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

Two Predicates..." It came and faded like a wreath of mist."

Three "..." The boys respect, obey, and love their teacher."

Four "..." He bounds, pervades, controls, encircles all."

[See Diagrams, pp. 44, 55, 58.

III. SUPPRESSED PREDICATES.

Note 1.—One or more words in Predicate may be suppressed when the sense is not thereby weakened nor obscured.

^{*} Let the Sentences made be adapted to their corresponding Diagrams.

EXAMPLES.

The 1st Word..1. "Most happy-they whom least his arts deceive."

2. "If—heard aright, it is the knell of my departed hours."

The 2d Word .. 3. "I'll-to the woods away."

4. "They may-and should return to allegiance."

The 3d Word..5. "May you never be deceived as I have been—."
The entire Predicate..6. "—To arms." "—To your tents, O Israel!"

7. "To whom thus Eve-."

8. "Where's the boy but three feet high, That's made improvement more than I?"

EXERCISES.

Let the Pupils name the words in the following Predicates whose suppression will contribute to conciseness, force, or elegance.

- 1. I'll go away. 2. Go back to thy punishment, false traitor.
- 3. I shall go to the city and shall buy me a hat.
- 4. John went and James went and George went to the city.
- 5. I can go and will go to the lecture.
- 6. Ernest has studied and has recited his lessons well.
- 7. The other boys can learn and should learn the same lessons.
- 8. You can go and can return on the same day.
- 9. Anna can sing better than Ernest can sing.
- 10. I wish Harmon were as much interested as Arthur is interested.
- 11. Is Mary taller than Albert is tall?
- 12. The stars are as bright as the sun is bright.

Note 2.—No part of the Predicate should be omitted, when the sense is thereby altered or obscured.

Let the Pupils correct the following

EPPOPS

- 1. "I shall avoid it altogether if it can be-"
- 2. "Illustrations make more vivid impressions than can be—by reasoning."
- 8. "A poet, by force of genius alone, may rise higher than a public speaker—"
- 4. William assisted George more than Charles-
- 5. "A squirrel can climb a tree quicker than a boy" -
- 6. John obeys his teacher as cheerfully as James-
- 7. William secured his position before Ernest—
- 8. "Ralph assisted his father more than James" --
- 9. "I-studied my lesson since school opened."
- 10. "I-see you again to-morrow."
- 11. "You ask for my opinion?"

IV. ACTIVE PREDICATES.—PASSIVE PREDICATES.

OBS. 1.—The Predicate may declare an act

- 2. Done to its Subject..... "Passive Voice."

EXAMPLES.

- (1.) Action of its Subject { 1. We love. 2. We see. 3. Columbus discovered America. 4. John is building his house.
- (2.) Action to its Subject { 1. We are loved. 2. We are seen. 3. America was discovered. 4. John's house is being built.
- Obs. 2.—Taste and judgment should be exercised in deciding which form-Active or Passive-should be used. But,
- Obs. 3.—Generally we use the Active form when the principal thought centers on the Agent.

Examples .- " Virtue secures happiness." Temperance promotes health.

Here "virtue" and "temperance" indicate the prominent thoughts.

Obs. 4.—We use the *Passive* form, when the principal thought centers on the recipient of the action, or when we do not know or do not care to mention the agent.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Manhood is disgraced by the consequences of neglected youth."

2. "The crew were saved, but the ship was lost."

Here, "manhood," "crew," and "ship" are most prominent in thought.

Note 3.—When the Agent of an act is made the Subject, the Active Voice should be used.

EXAMPLES.-1. Mr. Dewey has examined his class.

2. "The village master taught his little school."

Note 4.—When the recipient of the action is made the Subject, the Passive form should be employed.

EXAMPLES.-1. The class has been examined.

2. The school was taught by Dewey.

Obs. 5.—An Active Transitive Predicate may be changed to the Passive Intransitive form without materially altering the sense.

EXAMPLES. (21.)Active ... I saw him. 68W bim He Passive.. He was seen by me.

Note 5.—Only the direct object can properly become the Subject of a Passive Predicate.

EXAMPLES.-1. The teacher gave John a long lesson.

Wrong..2. John was given a long lesson by the teacher.

Correct.. 3. A long lesson was given to John by the teacher.

Exception.—But an Intransitive Predicate modified by a Phrase. sometimes takes the Passive form—the Leader of the Phrase being retained in Predicate. (See p. 117.)

Note 6.—The progressive form in the Active voice has its corresponding progressive form in the Passive.*

EXAMPLES.-1. John is reciting his lesson.

Active..2. "While he was harvesting his wheat, the flood came and swept it all away."

3. John's lesson is being recited.

Passive .. 4. While his wheat was being harvested, the flood came and swept it all away.

Obs.—We have certain idiomatic forms of expression in which one Voice is put for the other.

1. The Passive 11. "You are mistaken," 2. "You are come too late." for the Active. for You mistake. for You have come too late.

2. The Active

1. The bell is tolling, for the Passive. for The bell is tolled; i. e.,

Some one is tolling the bell.

2. I have a lesson to learn this evening,

for I have a lesson to be learned, or I have to learn a lesson.

3. "American marble polishes better than the Italian."

4. "Basswood cuts easier than oak."

Examples.—"The house is building," for the house is being built; which means, the house is be[com]ing built, i. e., people are at work upon it; but the house does not act.

This error, extended, would show itself more palpably. Thus: The field is plowing—the grass is mowing—the wood is chopping—the lesson is studying— "while the boy was whipping by the parent, the room was sweeping, the dinner was eating, the cow was milking."

Let us decide that all these are wrong, and go back to the sensible doctrine that a Subject—being not the agent but the recipient of the action—requires the Passive form.

"While the boy was being whipped, the room was being swept, and the cow was being milked" by some one, are pure English, sanctioned by our best writers, English and American. The feeble argument against this construction, "that it brings two like verbs or a verb and its participle together in the same Predicate," is sufficiently answered by the fact that the same is true of other verbs. I did do it, John has had the measles. "Robert would not will his farm to his nephew."

^{*} By a modern error-unfortunately sanctioned by some authors-action is sometimes improperly predicated of a Passive Subject.

Let the Pupils correct the following

Errors.—(See Note 5.)

- 1. Silas has been given a severe reprimand by the teacher.
- 2. Our minister was donated a horse and carriage.
- 3. Since then we have been given very good advice.
- 4. I have often been asked my opinion on that subject.
- 5. William was given a hundred dollars to test his economy.
- 6. I was told that story when I was a little boy.

Progressive Form .- (See Note 6.)

- 7. While John's dinner was eating, his corn was planting.
- 8. His barn was raising on the day his hay was cutting.
- These sentences are writing to show what an effort is making to confound the Active with the Passive Voice. "—Pray you avoid it."

V. THE VERB IN PREDICATE.

REM.—While all Verbs in Predicate have one office in common—that of making the assertion—they differ as to the *force* of their Predications.

Obs. 1.—Some Verbs have Objects, and hence are called Transitive Verbs.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

Note 7.—A Verb which is necessarily Transitive requires an Object in construction, expressed or implied.

Obs. 2.—The appropriate Object of a Sentence should not be made the Object of a Phrase.

EXAMPLE.—"Transitive Verbs do not admit of a Preposition after them."—Bullion's Grammar, p. 91, edition of 1847.

CORRECTED.—Transitive Verbs do not admit Prepositions after them [to complete the Predicate].

Obs. 3.—Some Verbs have no Objects, and hence are called *Intransitive Verbs*.

Note 8.—A Verb necessarily Intransitive should not have an Object, except by poetic license or for other rhetorical purposes.

EXAMPLE.—"I sit me down, a pensive hour to spend."

Obs. 4.—Some Verbs may have Objects or may not—according to their connections with other words. If the mind rests simply

on the act, or on the time, place, or manner of the act, it may be Intransitive; as,

Clara studies at home-Anna reads well.

But if thought is directed to a being or thing as the object of the act, the Verb is Transitive—

Clara studies algebra-Anna reads her Bible often.

- OBS. 5.—Some Verbs have their Objects limited to words of their own signification.
 - Examples.-1. "I dreamed a dream that was not all a dream."
 - 2. "I have fought a good fight."
- Obs. 6.—Some Verbs, commonly used Intransitively, become Transitive by virtue of a Prepositional Prefix.
 - Examples.—1. John goes to school............... "goes" is Intransitive.
 - 2. John undergoes punishment....." undergoes" is Transitive.
 - 8. The tower looks well "looks" is Intransitive.
 - 4. The tower overlooks the city..... "overlooks" is Transitive.
- Obs. 7.—In such examples of Compound Verbs in Predicate, it is generally—not always—the *Preposition in Composition* that makes the Verb Transitive.
- Obs. 8.—Verbs made Transitive by this use of Prefixes, can not elegantly be used in the Passive Voice.
 - EXAMPLES.—1. "John undergoes punishment."—We may not say punishment is undergone by John.
 - 2. "The tower overlooks the city."—Nor, the city is overlooked by the tower.
- Obs. 9.—In their Rank, Verbs differ. Some declare the Attribute, and hence are called *Principal Verbs*.
 - EXAMPLES.—We study.—They recite.—Boys should study.
- Obs. 10.—Some Verbs in Predicate indicate the circumstance of *Mode, Tense, Voice*, or some *modification* of the assertion, and hence are called *Auxiliary Verbs*.
 - Examples.—I do study.—You have studied.—Boys should study.
- Note 9.—In the construction of Sentences, those Auxiliary Verbs should be used that will best express the *Voice, Mode,* and *Tense* intended.

THE AUXILIARY VERB be.

OBS. 1.—We use the Auxiliary Verb be—in all its modifications—before a Present Participle, to make the *progressive form* of the Active Voice.

EXAMPLES.-1. Robert is attending lectures.

- 2. The gardener was trimming vines.
- OBS. 2.—We use the Auxiliary Verb be—in all its modifications—before a Past Participle, to make the Predicate Passive.
 - EXAMPLES .-- 1. The lectures were well attended.
 - 2. The grape-vines are trimmed.

Obs. 3.—We use the Verb be—in all its modifications—before Adjectives, Nouns, and Pronouns in Predicate, as a Copulative Verb, to give a declarative expression of the Attribute.

EXAMPLES.—Ellen is fair.—It is I.—He is a poet.

Obs. 4.—The Verb be—in all its forms—used as a complete Predicate, asserts simple existence. It is always Intransitive.

Examples .- 1. They are. 2. I am.

3. "Before Abraham was, I am."

REM.—The Verb be is never properly followed by another Verb in the same Predicate.

Have-had.

Obs. 5.—The Auxiliary Verb have—in all its modifications—is used to indicate a *Prior Tensc*.

EXAMPLES.

Prior Present.-I have finished my work.

Have you been to church to-day?

Prior Past.-John had gone before I arrived.

Had your coming been previously announced?

Prior Future.—John will have finished his studies.

Participle.-" Having seen the elephant, the rustic was satisfied."

Infinitive.-We ought to have attended the lecture.

Obs. 6.—As a *Principal* Verb, have—in all its modifications—is used to assert possession. It is always Transitive.

EXAMPLE.—" The pupil has his rights as the teacher has his."

REM.—This Verb have, is never properly followed by another Verb in the same Predicate.

Do-did-done.

. Obs. 7.—The Auxiliary Verbs do and did are used to give emphasis or intensity to their Principal Verbs.

EXAMPLES.

Present, do.—We do greatly rejoice in Mary's good fortune.

Past, did.—Did Claudius waylay Milo?

Obs. 8.—In colloquial style the Auxiliary Verbs—in all their modifications—are often used as a substitute for the Verbs or Participles in Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

- do....1. "Clara studies more diligently than you do-than you study."
- done .. 2. " Waste not your time as I have done—as I have wasted mine.
- have..3. Had you studied as faithfully as I have, you would have had your lesson.
- are...4. Louis is not quite so old as you are.
- can ... 5. Anna played that piece as well as you can.

Obs. 9.—As Auxiliary Verbs, when shall and will are used simply to assert a predication, they are signs of the *Indicative Future*. But when used to assert a present volition or enforce an obligation, they are signs of the *Potential Present*.

In the *Indicative Mode*, shall is properly used with the *First Person*, and will with the *Second* and *Third*.

In the Potential Mode this order is reversed.

EXAMPLES.

Indicative Future.—We shall have our lessons before the bell strikes.

You will soon see who has the lesson.

John will soon be here.

Potential Present.—We will have good lessons, or none.

You shall not do it.

John shall go to the lecture with you.

But,

Obs. 10.—In modern practice shall and will are interchangeable, one being often used for the other—sometimes not inelegantly, but often improperly.

I will drown:
No one shall help me;

or { I shall drown.
No one will help me.

OBS. 11.—The Auxiliaries may, can, must (in the Present), and might, could, would, and should (in the Past), are signs of the Potential Mode.

Obs. 12.—All the Auxiliary Verbs except "be" and "have," require Predicate Verbs after them.

Obs. 13.—Those Auxiliary Verbs that are also used as Principal Verbs, have not the same force and signification in each condition.

EXAMPLES.

As an Auxiliary.

Do... I do love you.

Have .. I have seen him.

Will .. Will you come to-morrow?

Be Shall I be carried?

" We are sawing our wood.

As a Principal Verb or Participle.

I do as John does.

I have had the ring.
John willed me his watch.

To be, contents his desire.

Our wood is being sawn.

MODE.

NOTE 10.—That Mode of a Verb should be used which will most clearly convey the sense intended.

Indicative.

Obs. 1.—When we declare or predict an actual event, or a conditional event assumed as true, we properly use the Indicative Mode.

EXAMPLES.-1. God lives. 2. Man is mortal.

3. If John has gone, he has gone at your request.

4. Thou art a scholar. 5. The eclipse will occur to-morrow.

Potential.

OBS. 2.—We assert desire, duty, probability, possibility, and volition by words in the Potentiul Mode.*

Examples.-1. Desire.-" I would thou wert cold or hot."

2.-Duty.-We should have perfect lessons.

8.-Probability.-" I may do what I shall be sorry for."

4.-Possibility.-You can learn this lesson easily.

5.- Volition .- "I will be honest if I cannot be rich."

Subjunctive.

OBS. 3.—A Verb used to denote a conditional fact or a contingency should have the Subjunctive form.

Examples.-1. "Were I Alexander, I would accept these terms."

2. "So would I were I Parmenio."

Obs. 4.—But if the condition is assumed as unquestionable, the Verb should be in the *Indicative Mode*.

Examples.-1. "If the boat goes, I shall go."

2. If John has offended you, he will make due apology.

^{*} For a List of Auxiliary Verbs that are signs of the Potential Mode, see p. 133.

REM. 1.—The Subjunctive Mode is found only in Auxiliary Adverbial Sentences.

OBS. 5.—A Sentence is made conditional—

 By the Subjunctive form of the Verb, without a Conditional Conjunction.

EXAMPLE. - Were I a teacher I would require perfect lessons.

 By its being introduced by the Conjunctions if, though, unless, etc., when the Mode may be Indicative, Potential, or Subjunctive.

EXAMPLES.

Indicative.-1. "If the earth turns over, why do we not fall off?"

2. Though Ernest is young, he is not boyish.

Potential .- 3. If we would be wise, we must study.

4. "Though thou shouldst bray a fool in a mortar."

Subjunctive .- 5. " If I were rich, I would build a hospital."

6. "Were I not Alexander, I would be Diogenes,"

Imperative.

Obs. 6.—We express command, entreaty, or advice in the use of the Imperative Mode.

EXAMPLES.

Command .. 1. "Make way for Liberty."

2. " Charge, Chester, charge."

Entreaty.... 8. " Give us this day our daily bread."

4. "Angels, and ministers of grace, defend us."

Advice5. "Avoid it, turn from it and pass away."

 Let all the ends thou aimest at be thy country's, thy God's, and Truth's.

OBS. 7.—The Imperative Mode is limited to the Present Tense.

Obs. 8.—The form of the Imperative is often elegantly used for the Future Indicative.

EXAMPLES.-1. Let us sing, for We will sing.

2. "Let there be light," for Light shall be.

REM. 2.—In analyzing and parsing Sentences like these we are to proceed as in ordinary Imperative Sentences. Parse a Sentence as you find it.

Obs. 9.—We have certain forms of expression which are analogous, if not equivalent to the Imperative—having the force without the form.

EXAMPLES.

Indicative.—1. "Fall he that must, beneath his rival's arms,
And live the rest, secure of future harms."—Pope.

Potential .- 2. "Thou shalt not take the name of the Lord thy God in vain."

Obs. 10.—The Imperative Mode is found only in Principal Sentences.

OBS. 11.—The Infinitive Mode is not used as a Predicate Verb.

Let the Pupils correct the following

Errors.—(See p. 218.)

- 1. "I wish I was a gipsy."
- 2. "If I was a teacher, I should give shorter lessons."
- 3. "Take care lest the boat leaves before you shall get up."
- 4. "The boy looks as if he was discouraged."
- 5. "If I was the king, I would conciliate the Commons."
- 6. "Shall you promise obedience in future, if I be lenient now?"
- 7. "I should think you ought to be more attentive to your studies."
- 8. "It would seem that John has incurred the displeasure of the teacher."
- 9. "If I was a Greek, I should resist Turkish despotism."
- 10. If you was in my place, you would the better appreciate my motives.
- 11. If he be as wise as he seem, he shall prove a good teacher.
- 12. If thou sendest me away, I will be miserable indeed.
- 13. He spoke as if he was angry.
- 14. I bade him to take heed lest he makes life a failure.
- 15. Watch the thoughts of thy heart, lest thou sinnest with thy lips.
- 16. If I was to decide, your hopes would brighten.

EXERCISES.

Let the Pupils determine the Voice, Mode, and Tense of each Verb in the following Sentences:

- 1. The study of science tends to make us devout.
- 2. I have a temple in every heart that owns my influence.
- 3. I have loved this vain world too much.
- 4. You will have accomplished a noble deed before you go hence.
- 5. Who can observe the careful ant, and not provide for future want?
 - 6. May one be pardoned and retain the offence?
 - 7. We will not have this man to rule over us.
- 8. "' Make way for Liberty,' he cried,—made way for Liberty, and died."
 - 9. Were I as rich as Crossus, I would not be thus extravagant.

- 10. When gold comes down to par, specie payments will be resumed.
 - 11. If one dollar will buy twelve pineapples, what will buy two?
- 12. If pineapples were as common as apples, would we prize them as highly?
 - 13. "Then turn we to her latest tribune's name."

TENSE.

- REM. 1.—The time of an act or event is represented generally by the form of the Verb, and definitely by the use of Adjuncts. Hence,
- Note 11.—That form of the Verb should be used which will most clearly express the time intended.
- Obs. 1.—A proposition which is always true, or which includes the past, the present, and the future, should be expressed in the Present Tense.
 - EXAMPLES,-1. "The lecturer demonstrated that the earth is round."
 - 2. "Did he say that the moon revolves from east to west?"
- OBS. 2.—In Complex Sentences, the Tense of the Principal Sentence does not necessarily control the Tense of the Verb in the Auxiliary Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

Past and Present .- 1. "I said in my haste, all men are liars."

"Copernicus first demonstrated that the earth revolves upon its axis."

Present and Future.—3. "Those that seek me early shall find me."

Future and Prior Present.—4. You will never know how much I have loved you.

Present and Prior Past.—5. I can not tell where I had seen him.

EXCEPTION.—In Auxiliary Sentences introduced by when, we use the Present form for the Future when the Verb in the Principal Sentence is future.

- Examples.-1. I shall go when the boat leaves.
 - 2. Will you be here when Ernest comes?
- OBS. 3.—An act or event in a time absolutely past, is best expressed in the Past form of the Verb.
 - EXAMPLES.-1. Time slept on flowers, and lent his glass to Hope."
 - 2. Grant commanded the army of the James.
- Obs. 4.—By a figure of speech (see "Vision," p. 000) often used in animated discourse, the *Present* form is put for the Past.

- Examples.—1. Hark! by the red lightning's fitful glare
 What bark is plunging 'mid the billowy strife?
 - 2. Now it mounts the wave, and rises threatening to the frowning sky.
- Obs. 5.—An act or event in a period of past time reaching to the Present, is best expressed in the *Prior Present form*.
 - EXAMPLES.-1. "I have never seen the righteous forsaken."
 - 2. Grant has occupied the chair of state one year.
- Obs. 6.—This form is never properly used in asserting an act absolutely and definitely past.

RYAMPIES.

- Incorrect .. 1. I have seen William yesterday.
 - 2. Phillips has lectured last evening on "the Lost Arts."
- Corrected .. 1. I saw William yesterday.
 - 2. Phillips lectured last evening on "the Lost Arts."
- Obs. 7.—An act or event predicted or promised at a future time, is best expressed in the Future form of the Verb.
 - EXAMPLES .- 1. We shall not all sleep.
 - 2. Will Sherman be our next President?

EXCEPTION.—In Adverbial Sentences used to denote time, the Present is often used for the Future and the Prior Future.

EXAMPLES.-1. I shall go when the train starts-will start.

- 2. "Till I come, give attention to reading."
- "'And when we are parted and when thou art dead, O where shall we lay thee?'—his followers said."
- OBS. 8.—When we wish to represent an act or event as finished at a future time, we use the form of the *Prior Future Tense*.*
 - EXAMPLES.—1. I shall have completed my sixtieth year before this work will be published.
 - 2. "You will have learned something of astronomy before the next transit of Venus will occur."
- REM. 2.—In familiar style it is sometimes allowable to throw back those Future Tenses one degree—thus,

Future and Present.—"I shall arrive there before you do," for Prior Future and Future.—"I shall have arrived there before you will."

^{*} The above are the common laws for the use of the Tenses. But poets, orators, and speakers in animated discourse, and writers in easy colloquial style, often claim license to disregard these laws, provided the "thoughts intended" are thereby conveyed "without fraud or fallacy."

Obs. 9.—The variations for the Potential Mode are rather variations of *form* than to indicate distinctions of *time*—this Mode being generally indifferent as to time.

EXAMPLE.—"O, would the scandal vanish with my life,
Then happy were to me ensuing death!"

" Would" is Past in form, but Future in sense.

Let the Pupils correct the following

Errors.-(See p. 221-2.)

- 1. The preacher declared that God was love.
- 2. During all last week I have not seen George at school.
- 3. If you will go to the city to-morrow, please call for me.
- 4. Clara has been taking lessons on the organ all last summer.
- 5. I may go to-morrow, but I could not go to-day.
- 6. Will that Alesma damage the hair ?-I should not think it could.
- 7. What is the diameter of the earth ?-" I could not tell."
- 8. When did you see Albert last ?-" I see him yesterday."
- 9. "Mr. Smith, would you be so kind as to help me work that problem?"
- 10. "At what hour to-morrow might we expect you to come?"
- 11. "I could n't say positively. It might be nine or ten."
- 12. "I have read six books of Virgil before I went to college."
- 13. Will we go to-morrow, or do we wait another day?

THE RIGHT VERB IN PREDICATE.

Note 12.—That Verb should be used which will correctly and fully express the fact intended.

Common Errors.-1. "There let him lay."-Byron.

2. "To you I fly for refuge."-Murray.

Corrected.—There let him lie.—To you I flee for refuge.

Let the Pupils correct the following

Errors.—(See Note 12)

- 1. "Respectable farmers never lay down in the field."
- 2. "I have no objection to your setting down occasionally."
- 3. "While I was talking, Sarah raised up to leave the hall."
- 4. "I expect you was out late last night."
- 5. "William has been falling trees in the maple grove."
- 6. "I would avoid it altogether if it can be done."
- 7. "Thou sawedst every action."-Guy's Grammar, p. 46.
- 8. "What are become of so many productions?"
- 9. "Ought you to take those peaches without leave? I do not think I had."
- 10. "He had n't ought to do it. Had he?"
- 11. " His face shown with the rays of the sun."
- 12. "Had you rather go or stay? I had rather go."

Note 13.—A Verb should not be used for its participle in Predicate.

Example.—James ought not to have went. Corrected.—James ought not to have gone.

Note 14.—A Participle should not take the place of its Verb.

EXAMPLE.—"The work is imperfect; you done it too hastily."

Corrected.—The work is imperfect; you did it too hastily.

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.—(See Notes 12, 14.)

- 1. "Julia is always chose first."
- 2. "Ainsworth has spoke twice and has wrote once."
- 8. "The best apple was gave to Anna."
- 4. "You ought not to have broke that chair."
- 5. "I seen you when you done it."
- 6. "I had rather have did it myself."
- 7. Ernest has broke his sled.
- 8. I have not been spoke to on that subject.
- "Ten o'clock, and my 'little boy Blue' hasn't drove the sheep to pasture yet."
- 10. "I have ate all I wish."
- 11. "Gold has fell ten cents in ten days."
- 12. "I have never sang in Church since."

PERSON AND NUMBER.

REM.—Most Verbs in Predicate are varied in form—inflected—to correspond with the modification of their Subjects. Hence,

RULE 2.—A Verb in Predicate must agree with its Subject in Person and Number.

Obs. 1.—This Rule requires that the form of a Verb be determined by its Subject, according to established usage:—Thus,

In the Singular Number,

For the First Person, the Radical form is used; as—I love, I walk. For the Second Person, Solemn style, the Suffix st or est is used; as—Thou lovest, thou walkest.

For the Third Person the Suffix s is used; as—He loves, John walks.

EXCEPTION 1.—By an ancient idiom—now seldom used, except by the poets—the termination **eth** is given to the Third Person Singular; as—He hath, he doth, he walketh.

Examples.-1. "How doth the busy bee improve each shining hour."

2. "He that loveth wine and oil shall not be rich."

EXCEPTION 2.—The Verb **be** has its peculiar forms in the Present Tense and in the Past. (See Conjugation, pp. 134-5.)

Obs. 2.—In the *Plural Number*, Verbs are not varied in *form* to indicate Person and Number.

PRIN.—Only the *first word* in Predicate is varied in form, for any purpose.

NOTE 15.—One Subject in the Singular Number requires its Verb to be in the Singular.

REM.—This note applies alike to Words, to Phrases, and to Sentences.

EXAMPLES.

Word Subjects.....1. "EARTH keeps me here awhile."

2. "Knowledge reaches or may reach every home."

Phrase Subjects 3. "MY LEAVING HOME does not please you."

4. "To dispute the doctor requires fortitude."

Sentence Subjects..5. "THAT ALL MEN ARE CREATED RQUAL, is a self-evident truth."

6. "How he came back again, doth not appear."

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.—(See Rule 2, and Note 15.)

1. "Where are you, my boy? Here I are."

2. "Such a clatter of sounds indicate rage."

3. "This addition of foreign words have been made by commerce."

4. "And many a steed in his stables were seen."

5. "There are pupils in this class, whose progress have been astonishing."

6. "He dare not call me coward."

7. "Does thou love to go to school?"

8. "I am mindful that myself is strong."

9. "I refer to this that yourself hath spoken."

"I have read what thou says of our peculiarities."—The Friend.
 10*

- 11. "When thou most sweetly sings."-Drummond.
- 12. "Thy nature, Immortality, who knowest?"- Everest's Grammar.
- 13. "Who dare avow himself equal to the task?"
- 14. "Every error I could find, have my busy muse employed."
- 15. "They pray together much oftener than thou insinuates."
- 16. "Simply to give alms to the poor, do not constitute the sum of Christian duty."
- "Receiving and secreting stolen goods, are punishable by our municipal laws."
- 18. "How the boys all escaped from drowning were a wonder to us all."
- 19. "That Milton should love the dollars as he does, astonish all his friends."
- 20. "Variety of numbers still belong To the soft melody of ode or song."

NOTE 15.—Two or more Singular Subjects, taken separately, require the Verb to be Singular.

REM.—This law applies alike to Words, to Phrases, and to Sentences.

EXAMPLES.

- Word Subjects.....1. "WILLIAM OF WARNER has my knife."
 - 2. "DISEASE OF POVERTY follows the lazy track of the sluggard."
 - 8. "My POVERTY, but not my WILL, consents."-Shaks.
 - "Every PHRASE and every FIGURE which he uses tends to render the picture more lively and complete,"—Blair.
- Phrase Subjects... 5. "WRITING LETTERS OF READING NOVELS occupies her evening hours."
 - 6. "To BE OR NOT TO BE, is the question."
 - 7. "To shoot or to be shot, was my only alternative."
- Sentence Subjects...8. "That my client aided in the rescue, or that he was present at the time of it, does not appear from the evidence adduced."

Let the Pupils correct the following

Errors.—(See Note 15.)

- 1. "Neither history nor tradition furnish such information."
- "Neither Charles nor his brother were qualified to support such a system."
- 3. "Nor war nor wisdom yield our Jews delight,"
- 4. "He or his deputy were authorized to commit the culprit."
- 5. "For outward matter or event fashion not the character within."
- 6. To shoot or to be shot, were my only alternative.
- Reading novels or lounging about the village are alike damaging to the moral character.
 - 8. How we could escape or where we were to go, were to be decided at once.

- That he is rich or that you are poor are not material to the question of relative happiness.
- 10. "Praise from a friend, or censure from a foe, Are lost on hearers that our merits know."

NOTE 16.—A Collective Noun, indicating Unity, requires its Verb to be in the Singular Number.

EXAMPLES.-1. "A NATION has been smitten."

2. "The SENATE HAS REJECTED the bill." '

3. "Congress has adjourned."

EXCEPTION.—The Logical Subject of a Sentence is sometimes the Object of a Phrase used to qualify the Grammatical Subject. Then, when the Object of the Phrase is plural in form, and indicates that the parts of which the number is composed are taken severally, the Verb should be Plural.

Example.—A part of the students have gone.



Here "students"—the name of many taken severally—is the Logical Subject of "have left," and requires the Verb to be Plural, although "part," the Grammatical Subject, is Singular; or, we may regard the *Modified Subject* as Plural—made so by the Plural Noun "students," in the limiting Phrase—and the Verb takes the Plural form. (See Diagram.)

OBS. 3.—But Nouns not Collective are not varied in number by their Adjuncts.

Examples.-1. "The progress of his forces was impeded."



- 2. The selection of appropriate examples requires taste.
- "All appearances of modesty are favorable and prepossessing."—Blair.

CAUTION.—Avoid the awkward and improper use of Partitives as Subjects, when they properly belong in Phrase Adjuncts of the true Subjects. Thus,

Incorrect.—"This sort of Adverbs commonly admit of comparison."—Buchannan's Grammar.

Corrected.-Adverbs of this sort commonly admit of comparison.

"Every kind of comfort and convenience were provided."—Com. Sch. Jour. Better.—Comfort and convenience of every kind were provided.

"This species of words were numerous."

Retter .- Words of this species were numerous.

Let the Pupils correct the following

Errors.—(See Note 16.)

- "A series of exercises in false grammar are introduced toward the end."

 —Frost's Grammar.
- The number of the names were about one hundred and twenty."—Ware's Grammar.
- 3. "The number of school districts have increased since last year."
- 4. "In old English, this species of words were numerous."
- 5. "Have the legislature power to prohibit assemblies?"
- 6. "Above one-half of them was cut off before the return of spring."
- 7. "The greater part of their captives was sacrificed."
- 8. "While still the busy world is treading o'er The paths they trod five thousand years before."
- 9. "Small as the number of inhabitants are, their poverty is extreme.
- 10. "The number of bounty-jumpers are enormous."

NOTE 17.—A Collective Noun, indicating Plurality, requires its Verb to be in the Plural Number.

Examples.-1. "The Prople are foolish, they have not known me."

2. "The peasantry are ever jealous of the nobility."

Obs. 1.—Collective Nouns, which always require a Plural Verb, are the following:

Gentry-mankind-nobility-people-peasantry.

OBS. 2.—Those which may have Verbs in the Singular or Plural, according to the sense, are the following:

 $\label{lem:congress} A ristocracy-army-auditory-committee-congress-church-family-meeting-public-school-remnant-senate.$

REM.—The Unity or Plurality of a Collective Noun is generally determined by its Adjuncts, or by the nature of its Predicate Verb.

Examples .- 1. "The committee was appointed by the chair."

- 2. "The committee were unanimous in sentiment."
- 3. "The committee have never been able to agree."

Let the Pupils correct the following

Errors. -(See Note 17.)

- 1. The minority is attempting to control the majority.
- 2. But the majority is not disposed to submit to its control.
- 8. The rabble is prepared for any event.
- 4. The peaceable people walches their action with anxiety.
- 5. While the whole thoughtless youth is eager for the strife,
- 6. The nobility is alarmed, and
- 7. Mankind in general is apprehensive of a general anarchy.

Note 18.—One Subject in the Plural Number should have a Verb in the Plural.

EXAMPLES.

Word Subjects 1. "The boys are reciting."

2. " They that seek me early shall find me."

EXCEPTION 1.—Nouns, Plural in form, often constitute the titles of books. Such names, used as Subjects of Sentences, require their Verbs to be Singular.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. "The 'Pleasures of Hope' was recited by the class."
- 2. "The 'Lives of the Martyrs' is now out of print."



EXCEPTION 2.—A Plural Subject, modified by a Phrase whose Subsequent is the Logical Subject of the Sentence, and Singular in form, may have a Singular Verb.



Two-thirds of my hair has fallen off.



Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS. - (See Note 18.)

- 1. " Is those your sentiments?"
- 2. "Such phenomena is not often witnessed."
- 8. " Was there no spiritual men then?"
- 4. "To him giveth all the prophets witness."
- 5. "There seems to be but two general classes."-Day's Grammar.
- 6. "Hence arises the six forms of expressing time."-1b., p. 87.
- 7. "There was several other grotesque figures that presented themselves."
- 8. "'Rills from the Fountain of Life' were published by Lippincott."
- 9. "Five times five is twenty-five."
- 10. "And five times six is thirty."
- 11: "Three apples from twelve apples leaves nine apples."
- 12. Three added to nine makes twelve.
- 13. "Dickens' 'Household Words' are among the best of his works."

NOTE 19.—Two or more Subjects connected by and require the Verb to be in the Plural.

EXAMPLES.

Word Subjects1. Anna and Clara are studying their lessons.



- 2. The boys and the girls were preparing for the exami-
- Phrase Subjects ... 3. "Chewing tobacco and smoking cigars disqualify a young man for mental improvement,"—Cutcheon.
 - 4. "To spin, to weave, to knit, and to sew, were once a girl's employments.
- Sentence Subjects..5. "Read of this burgess—on the stone appear,

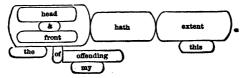
 How worthy he! how virtuous! and how dear!"—

 Crabbe.

EXCEPTION 1.—Two or more Singular Subjects so intimately associated in thought as to constitute a logical unity, may have a Verb in the Singular Number.

EXAMPLES.--1. "The head and front of my offending hath this extent."—

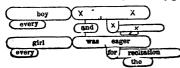
Shakspeare.



2. "There is a peculiar force and beauty in this figure."-Kames.

EXCEPTION 2.—Two or more Singular Subjects preceded by the Adjectives each, every, or no, require the Verb to be in the Singular Number.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Every boy and every girl was eager for the recitation."

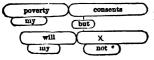


REM.—The Predicate of the first Subject is suppressed —being obviously understood.

- 2. "Each day and each hour is fraught with consequences too momentous for human contemplation."
- 3. "No fortune and no condition in life makes the guilty mind happy."

EXCEPTION 3.—Two or more Singular Subjects connected by and—one taken affirmatively and the other negatively—require the Verb to be in the Singular Number.

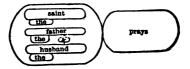
Examples.-1. "My poverty, but not my will, consents."-Shakspeare.



Rem.—The Predicate of the second Subject is suppressed, while its Adverb is retained. "His moral integrity, and not his wealth, makes him respected."

EXCEPTION 4.—Two or more Singular Subjects, indicating the same person or thing, require the Verb to be in the Singular Number.

EXAMPLE.—" The saint, the father, and the husband prays."



EXCEPTION 5.—Whenever a Verb immediately follows the *first* of two or more Subjects, it must agree in Person and Number with it, and it is understood after the others.

EXAMPLE.—Here joy abounds, and gratitude and love.

Let the Pupils correct the following

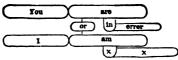
ERRORS .- (See pp. 229-31.)

- 1. "Two and two is four, and five is nine."
- 2. "The flax and the barley was smitten."
- 3. "The Mood and Tense is signified by the Verb."
- 4. "Every word and every member have their due weight and force."
- 5. "Each day and each hour bring their portion of duty."
- "No law, no restraint, no regulation are required to keep him in bounds."
- 7. "Prudence, and not pomp, are the basis of his fame."
- 8. "Not fear, but fatigue, have overcome him."
- 9. "The President, not the Cabinet, are responsible for the measure."
- "Every old man, and every woman and child, were removed to a place of safety."
- 11. "What is the latitude and longitude of Boston?"
- 12. "Neither Anna nor Ernest have permission to go."
- 18. "Neither Clara nor Ruby are remarkably beautiful."
- 14. "One eye on death and one full fixed on heaven, Becomes a mortal and immortal man."—Young.
- 15. The designer and not the engraver are at fault.
- 16. "Our Maker, Governor, and Guide demand our homage."
- 17. "Each thought we cherish and each word we utter are known to Him."
- 18. "No vice of the heart and no sin of the tongue have ever escaped His notice."
 - 19. "Dissipation and not late hours have made him an invalid."

PERSON.

Note 20.—Two or more Subjects, taken separately and differing in Person, should have separate Verbs, when the Verb is varied to denote the Person of its Subject.

EXAMPLE. - You are in error, or I AM.



OBS.—But when the Verb is not varied to denote the Person, it need not be repeated.

EXAMPLES.-1. You or I must go.

2. The doctors or you are in error.



Note 21.—When the Subject of a Verb differs in Person or Number (or both) from a Noun or Pronoun in Predicate, the Verb should agree with its Subject rather than with the word in Predicate.*

Examples.-1. "Thou art the man." 2. Clouds are vapor.

3. A Horse is an animal.

GRAMMATIC FALLACIES.

REM.—Let the Pupil correct the errors in the following Sentences, and give the authority for every criticism, by a proper reference to Rule 2, or to Notes and Observations under the Rule.

- 1. "The rapidity of his movements were beyond example."- Wells.
- 2. "The mechanism of clocks and watches were totally unknown."
- "The Past Tense of these Verbs are very indefinite with respect to time."
 —Bullion's Grammar, p. 31. 1840.
- 4. "Everybody are very kind to her."-Byron.
- 5. "To study mathematics, require maturity of mind."
- 6. "That they were foreigners, were apparent in their dress."
- 7. "Coleridge the poet and philosopher have many admirers."
- 8. "No monstrous height, or length, or breadth appear."-Pope.
- 9. "Common sense, as well as piety, tell us these are proper."

^{*} The young Pupil often finds it difficult to decide which of the two Substantives is the Subject and which the Noun in Predicate. The following test will decide this point:

When one term is generic and the other specific, the former belongs in Predicate—the latter is the Subject. Thus, in Example 3, "animal" is a generic term—"horse" is specific. We can not say, an animal is a horse, for not every animal is a horse; but every horse is an animal. Hence, "horse" is the Subject, and "animal" is in Predicate. (See Independent Case, p. 85, Obs. 5.)

- 10. "Wisdom or folly govern us."-Fisk's Grammar.
- 11. "Nor want nor cold his course delay."-Johnson.
- 12. "Hence naturally arise indifference or aversion between the parties."
- 18. "Wisdom, and not wealth, procure esteem."
- 14. "No company likes to confess that they are ignorant."
- 15. "The people rejoices in that which should cause sorrow."
- 16. "Therein consists the force and use and nature of language."
- "From him proceeds power, sanctification, truth, grace, and every other blessing we can conceive."—Calvin.
- 18. "How is the Gender and Number of the Relative known?"
- 19. "Hill and dale doth boast thy blessing."-Milton.
- "The Syntax and Etymology of the language is thus spread before the learner."—Bullion's Grammar.
- "In France the peasantry goes barefoot, and the middle sort makes use of wooden shoes."—Harrey.
- 22. "While all our youth prefers her to the rest."- Waller.
- 23. "A great majority of our authors is defective in manner."
- 24. "Neither the intellect nor the heart are capable of being driven."
- 25. "Nor he nor I are capable of harboring a thought against your peace."
- 26. "Neither riches nor fame render a man happy."-Day's Grammar.
- 27. "I or thou art the person who must undertake the business,"
- 28. "The quarrels of lovers is a renewal of love."
- "Two or more sentences united together is called a compound sentence."
 —Day's Grammar.
- 80. "If I was a Greek, I should resist Turkish despotism."
- "I can not say that I admire this construction, though it be much used."
 —Priestly's Grammar, p. 172.
- "It was observed in Chap. 3, that the disjunctive or had a double use."— Churchill's Grammar.
- 33. "I observed that love constituted the whole character of God."
- 84. "A stranger to the poem would not easily discover that this was verse."
- "Had I commanded you to have done this, you would thought hard of it."—J. Brown.
- 36. "I found him better than I expected to have found him."
- 37. "There are several faults which I intended to have enumerated."
- 38. "An effort is making to abolish the law."
- 39. "The Spartan admiral was sailed to the Hellespont."-Goldsmith.
- 40. "So soon as he was landed, the multitude thronged about him."
- 41. "Which they neither have nor can do."-Barclay.
- 42. "For you have but mistook me all the while."-Shakepeare.
- 43. "Who would not have let them appeared."-Steele.
- 44. "You were chose probationer."-Spectator.
- 45. "Had I known the character of the lecture, I would not have went."
- 46. "They don't ought to do it."-Walkins.
- 47. "Had I ought to place 'wise' in Predicate with 'makes?" "-Pupil.
- 48. "Whom they had sat at defiance."-Bolingbroke.
- 49. "Whereunto the righteous fly and are safe."-Barclay.
- 50. "She sets as a prototype, for exact imitation."—Rash.

REM.—After correcting the above examples, the Pupil should analyze and parse them—using the Model given on p. 205, or those on pp. 183-4.

SYNTAX OF THE OBJECT.

REM. 1.—Not all Sentences have Objects. This fact has led some authors to regard the Object of a Sentence, not as one of the Principal Elements of a Sentence, but as a sort of modifier of the Predicate.*

REM. 2.—The Syntax of the Object embraces its material, its form, its modification, its position, and its relation.

I. MATERIAL OF THE OBJECT.

PRIN.—The Object of a Sentence must be a Substantive.

EXAMPLES.

- A Word .- 1. A Noun. Virtue secures happiness.
 - 2. A Pronoun. Thee we adore.
- A Phrase .- 3. Participial. I doubted his having the ring.
 - 4. Infinitive. We love to attend school.
- A Sentence.-5. Transitive. John said he had the ring.
 - 6. Intransitive. Did you ascertain who went?

WORD OBJECT.

Subject. Predicate, Object.

Examples.

A Noun.—Proper. Grant conquered Lee.
 Common. Did you see the eclipse?
 Abstract. I commended his firmness.

Collective. Did you attend the convention?

Verbal (Act.) I did not admire the singing.

2. A Pronoun.—Personal. "Help me, Cassius, or I sink."

To say that the Object is simply a modifier of the Predicate, is to confound an Object with an Adjunct, a Substantive with an Adverb—thus destroying the fundamental principles of analysis.

^{*} It is true that the Object does, in a sense, limit its Predicate; but it is as true that the Predicate limits its Subject by declaring an act or an attribute of it. Hence, if we regard the Predicate as a distinct Element in a Sentence, we should for the same reason rank the Object of a Transitive Sentence as a Principal Element.

Belative. All whom he sees, obey him.
Interrogative. Whom seekest thou?
Adjective. What sought they thus afar?

II. FORM OF THE OBJECT.

REM.—English Nouse have the same forms in all the Cases—except when used as Adjuncts. Hence,

Obs. 1.—A Noun is known to be the Object of a Sentence by its properly answering the questions whom? or what? placed immediately after the Predicate.

Examples.-1. We visited William-visited whom?... William.

2. John gave me a book-gave what?...book.

REM.—Most *Pronouns* have peculiar forms to denote the Object (see p. 93). Hence,

Obs. 2.—A Pronoun is known to be the Object of a Sentence generally by its form, and always by its answering the question whom? or what? placed immediately after the Predicate.

EXAMPLES. -1. Robert visited us-visited whom?...us.

2. We had invited him-invited whom?... Robert.

III. LIMITATIONS OF THE OBJECT.

REM. 1.—We have seen (p. 195) that the Subject is limited by the Predicate and by its Adjuncts; and (in p. 208) that the Predicate is limited by its Object and by its Adjuncts.

REM. 2.—While the Subject, the Predicate, and the Object sustain logical relations to one another, the Object is grammatically limited only by its Adjuncts.

EXAMPLES.

Words .- 1. "The blossoms deck the Bough."

2. "We have had our May-day GARLANDS."

Phrases .- 3. "I saw an EAGLE wheeling near its brow."

4. "The FOAM of the billows already I see."

Sentences .- 5. I have been visiting the MAN who sent me to college,

6. "THEM that honor me, I will honor."

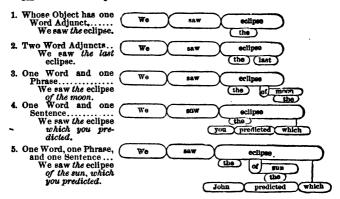
OBS.—The Object may be limited or defined by Logical Adjuncts.

EXAMPLES.—1. "I thank THEE, Roderic, for the word,"

2. There thou shalt find my cousin, Beatrice. (See p. 42.)

EXERCISES.

Let each Pupil make a Sentence-



Let each Pupil make a Sentence for each of the above. Diagrams.

Let each Pupil make a Sentence whose Object is limited

(1)	by a Pure Specifying Adjective	See p.	103
	by a Possessive Specifying Adjective		104
(8)	by a Numeral Specifying Adjective	"	104
	by a Qualifying Adjective		102
(5)	by a Verbal Adjective	"	104
(6)	by an Interrogative Adjective	. "	103
	by a Proper Adjective		103
(8)	by a Logical Adjunct	"	34
	by a Prepositional Phrase		24
	by a Participial Phrase		25
(11)	by an Infinitive Phrase	"	25
	by a Transitive Sentence		42
(13)	by an Intransitive Sentence	. "	41
(14)	by a Compound Sentence	"	43
(15)	by a Complex Sentence	. "	46

IV. CONDITION OF THE OBJECT.

RULE 3.—The object of an action or of a relation must be in the Objective Case.

Obs. 1.—Action is expressed by Verbs and by Participles.

Relation is expressed by Prepositions.

Subject.	Predicate.	Objects.
Virtue	secures	happiness

OBS. 2.—Only the *Pronouns* I, thou, he, she, it, and who, and their Plurals, vary their forms for the *Objective*. (See pp. 93, 95.)

Note 1.—Pronouns that are varied in form to denote the Case, should have their appropriate forms for the Objective.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Them that honor me, I will honor."

2. "And must I leave thee, Paradise?"

EXCEPTION 1.—The Possessive form of Nouns and Pronouns is sometimes, though rarely, used in the Objective Case.

EXAMPLE.—John is a friend of mins. (See p. 90.)

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS

- 1. "They will not go without she and I."
- 2. " Who did Gertrude marry?"
- 3. "Vain pomp and glory of the world, I hate ye."
- 4. "I can not tell who I saw there."
- 5. "I took it to be he who we had visited at Homer."
- 6. "I do not remember who they are for."
- 7. "There are a few who, like you and I, drink nothing but water."
- 8. "All debts are cleared between you and I."
- 9. "And to poor we, thine enmity's most capital."
- 10. "We should discriminate between him who is the sycophant and he who is the teacher."

REM.—In constructing Sentences special attention is required in giving to the Object of a Sentence its appropriate

Position.

NOTE 2.—In position, the Object of a Sentence commonly follows the Predicate.

Examples.-1. "Virtue secures happiness."

2. "The king of shadows Loves a shining mark."

EXCEPTION 1.—By the poets, and for rhetorical effect, the Object is often placed before the Predicate.

Examples.-1. "Him, from my childhood, I have known."

2. " New ills that latter stage AWAIT."

EXCEPTION 2.—A Relative or Conjunctive Pronoun, being the Object of a Sentence, is placed before its Predicate.

Examples.-1. "Mount the horse which I have chosen for you."

2. "We serve a Monarch whom we LOVE—
A God whom we ADORE."

Two or more Objects.

- OBS. 3.—A Sentence may have two or more Objects when they are connected in construction by Conjunctions, expressed or implied.
 - EXAMPLES.-1. "GOD CREATED the heaven and the earth."
 - 2. "Now twilight LETS her curtain down, And PINS it with a star."
- Obs. 4.—The Objects of a Compound Sentence sometimes consist of different Words, indicating the same being or thing.

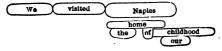
EXAMPLES.—1. "By this dispensation, we have lost a neighbor, a friend, a brother."

2. "Thus she addressed the Father of gods, and King of men."

Obs. 5.—But one Word used to limit the signification of another, can not be in the same construction; and hence, the two Words are not Objects of the same Verb, unless they are compounded and parsed as one Element.

Examples.-1. Have you seen Colleringe, the philosopher and poet?

2. "We visited NAPLES, the home of our childhood."



REM.—"Home" is a Noun, used to describe "Naples," not as an Adjective, but as an equivalent name of the same place.

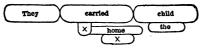
"Philosopher" and "poet" are Substantive appellations of the man, "Coleridge."

(See "Logical Adjuncts" and "Independent Case," p. 88.)

Note 3.—Verbs of giving, and some others, are often followed by two Objects-one of the Verb and the other of a Preposition suppressed.

EXAMPLES .- 1. Anna gave me a rose.

- 2. Charles asked me my opinion.
- 3. They carried the child home.



REM. 1.—Here it will be seen that "child" is the proper Object of "carried." They did not carry the "home." But they carried the child to some place—and that place was called "home."

REM. 2.—In parsing examples like the above, the ellipsis should be supplied. Thus, "to his home" is an Adjunct of "carried." Hence, an Adverbial Phrase.

"Home," as a Representative of the Phrase, is an Adverb.

"Home," as an Element in the Phrase, is a Noun-Object of to understood. Hence, in the Objective Case. (See p. 180.)

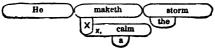
Obs. 6.—The Verbs make, esteem, regard, consider, elect, bid, dare, feel, hear, see, and some others, are often followed by an Infinitive Phrase, having its Preposition (and sometimes the Verb) understood.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Lorenzo, these are thoughts that make man man." These are thoughts that make man [TO BE] MAN.

> 2. " Teach them obedience to the laws." Teach them [TO YIELD] OBEDIENCE to the laws.

REM.—In examples like these, the second Noun or Pronoun is the Object of the Verb understood or used in Predicate with it. Thus, "man" is used in Predicate with "to be," or "to become," understood, and "obedience" is the Object of "vield."

EXAMPLES.-1. "Intemperance makes a man [to become] a fool." 2. "He maketh the storm [] a calm."



Obs. 7.—By another construction, in which the force of the suppressed Preposition is still more obscured, the Verbs appoint, call, choose, constitute, create, dub, elect, make, name, and proclaim, sometimes have two Objects-one direct, and the other indirect.

EXAMPLES.-1. They named him John.



2. And Simon he surnamed Peter.

REM.—In Example 1, "him" is the direct Object—"John" the remote Object; and is, logically considered, a part of the Predicate—a title acquired by the action expressed by the Verb. The Verbs above given do not, in such examples, express the full Predicate, nor have we Verbs that can, unless, perhaps, in the following example:

"They dubbed him knight."

Equivalent .- " They KNIGHTED him."

OBS. 8.—A Verb which, in the Active Voice, is followed by a direct and a remote Object, retains the remote Object as a part of the Passive Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. He is named John.
- 2. North was elected President.

He is named John

REM.—This construction is analogous to that of a Substantive in Predicate with a Neuter Verb.

Thou art Peter-He is John.

Thou art—who?—Peter. He is named John. The word "Peter" completes the Predicate; the words "named John" complete the Predicate.

SUPPRESSION OF THE OBJECT.

Note 4.—The Object of a Sentence or of a Phrase should not be omitted when the sense is thereby obscured or weakened.

EXAMPLES OF ERRORS.

- Of a Sentence..1. "In these cases, custom generally determines."
 - "Though thou wilt not acknowledge—thou canst not deny the fact."
 - 8. "The Indicative Mood simply indicates—or declares—"
- Of a Phrase...4. "In conjugating—you must pay particular attention to these signs."
 - 5. "The author, hastening to finish—appears to write rather carelessly."
 - 6. "A verb signifying actively, governs the Accusative.

OBS.—The same word can rarely be properly the Object of a Sentence and of a Phrase in the same connection.

EXAMPLES OF ERRORS.

"The party entered, and passed quite through the cave."

Belter-The party entered the cave, and passed quite through it.

OBS.—A Relative Pronoun, being the Object of an Auxiliary Sentence, is often elegantly suppressed.

EXAMPLES.-1. I gave him all-I had.

- 2. Ernest placed in diagram all the sentences-I gave him.
- 3. History is all the light-we have.
- 4. We receive from it a great part of the useful truths-we have.

OBJECT PHRASE.

Note 5.—Some Transitive Verbs may have, as their Objects, Substantive Phrases.

Examples.-1. "I doubted his having been a soldier."



I doubted—what? Not "his," nor "having," nor "been," nor "a," nor "soldier," but the fact asserted by the whole Phrase, "His having been a soldier."

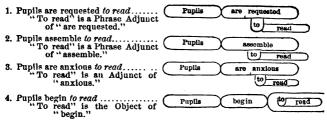
2. "His being a minister, prevented his rising to civil power."

Prevented—what?

Obs. 1.—Object Phrases are generally of the *Participial Form*, Prepositional and Infinitive Phrases being commonly used as Adjuncts, and Independent Phrases as Logical Adjuncts. (See p. 24, Obs. 1; see also Clark's Analysis, p. 115.)

Obs. 2.—Infinitive Phrases following Verbs, commonly indicate purpose or cause, and serve to limit the signification or application of Verbs. Such are properly called Adverbs. But they sometimes follow Verbs as their Objects.

EXAMPLES.



Obs. 3.—The Transitive Verbs having Objects expressed, are often limited by Infinitive Phrases.

EXAMPLES.-1. The teacher requested William to recite.



2. I BELIEVE the milkman to be honest.*

REM. 1.—" To recite" is a Phrase, Adjunct of "requested;" it limits the request. "William" is the Object of the modified Predicate "requested to recite."

Obs. 4.—This construction should be carefully distinguished from that in which the Infinitive Phrase is Adjunct of the Object.

EXAMPLES.-1. The general gave the ORDER to fire. What order?



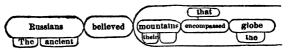
- 2. The subordinate manifested a disposition to dictate.
- 3. Idle pupils manifest little anxiety to improve.
- REM. 2.—" To fire" limits "order;" hence, an Adjective.
 - "To dictate" limits "disposition;" hence, an Adjective.
- Let the Pupil place Sentences 2 and 3 in the given Diagram.

OBJECT SENTENCE.

NOTE 6.—Many Transitive Verbs have as their Objects Substantive Auxiliary Sentences.

EXAMPLES.-1. "But Brutus says he was ambitious."

The ancient Russians believed that their northern mountains encompassed the globe."



- 3. "Can you tell where my Highland laddie's gone?"
- 4. "He hastily demanded why I came."

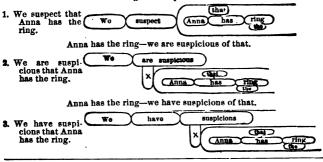
I believe that the milkman is honest.

^{*} The propriety of this construction depends much on the character of the predicate verb. Thus, "The teacher requested William to recite," is proper and not inelegant. But,

[&]quot;I believe the milkman to be honest," is inelegant and objectionable. The thought is better expressed thus,

- 5, "The village all declared how much he knew."
- 6. "Did you but know to whom I gave the ring."
- REM. 1.—The Pupil will notice that Sentences used as *Indirect* Objects, are introduced by a Word or a Phrase which constitutes, logically, the essential part of the Object. Thus in Sentence 2, "that" stands for the whole Proposition.
 - "Their northern mountains encompassed the globe."
 - "The ancient Russians believed that."
 - "My Highland laddie has gone"-can you tell where?
 - "I gave the ring"-did you but know to whom.
- REM. 2.—Still we are to regard the entire Auxiliary Sentence as the Grammatical Object of the Principal Predicate.
- OBS. 1.—This construction is to be carefully distinguished from Complex Sentences, in which the Object Sentences are introduced by the Double Relative what.
 - EXAMPLES.-1. "But here I come to tell what I do know."
 - 2. "You have done what you should be sorry for."
- REM. 3.—Here, "what I do know" is the modified Object of "tell." (See Diagram, p. 49.)
- Obs. 2.—By another construction, Auxiliary Sentences may constitute the Objects of Prepositions suppressed.

Anna has the ring-we suspect that.*

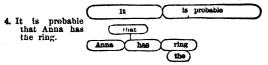


- * The history of the word that traces its offices-
 - 1. As an Adjective—That rose is beautiful.
 - 2. As a Pronoun-The rose that all are praising.
 - 3. As a Conjunction—I believe that he is honest.
- 4. You assert that that quotation that you have given is from Carey. And, whatever may be its specific office in any given position, it still retains its previous offices—i. e., whenever it is used as a Conjunction, it also retains its

its previous offices—i.e., whenever it is used as a Conjunction, it also retains its Substantive character; and whenever it is used as a Pronoun, it retains its Adjective office. (See Examples above.)

ENGLISH GRAMMAR—PART III.

Anna has the ring-it is probable-that is probable.



REM.—In each of the above Examples the Auxiliary Sentence, "that Anna has the ring," is Substantive in office.

In the 1st, it is the Object of a Transitive Sentence.

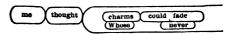
In the 2d, it is the Object of an Adverbial Phrase—the Leader being suppressed.

In the 3d, it is the Object of an Adjective Phrase, of which the Leader is suppressed.

In the 4th, it is a Logical Adjunct of "it." (See Diagram, p. 48.)

Obs. 5.—Sometimes a Principal Sentence is thrown in between the parts of an Objective Sentence.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Whose charms, me thought, could never fade."



- 2. "This explanation, I doubt not, will satisfy him."
- 8. "But confidence, he added, is a plant of slow growth."

THE OBJECTS OF PHRASES.

REM.—Action is expressed by Verbs, and by Participles.

Relation is expressed by Prepositions. Hence,

OBS. 1.—The Object of a Verb or of a Participle, is the Object of an Action, and must be in the Objective Case.

EXAMPLES.

Infinitive Verb.—"I came to BURY Casar, not to PRAISE him."
Participle.—"He could not avoid giving offence."

OBS. 2.—The Object of a Preposition is the Object of a Relation, indicated by the Preposition, and is in the Objective Case.

EXAMPLES .- 1. "For me your tributary stores combine."

"The boy stood on the burning deck, Whence all BUT him had fled."

OBS. 3.—The Objects of Phrases and Sentences may be Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

EXERCISES ON OBJECTS.

I. OBJECTS OF SENTENCES.

Let the following Sentences be analyzed by the Chart, and parsed:

- Word Objects .- 1. "There thou shalt FIND my cousin Beatrice." Shaks.
 - 2. "His daring foe securely him DEFIED."-Milton.
 - 3. "The broom its yellow leaf HATH SHED."-Langhorn.
 - 4. "Did I request thee, Maker, from my clay, To mold me man?"—Millon.
- Phrase Objects.-5. "We may avoid talking nonsense on these subjects."
 - 6. "I DOUBTED their having it."
- Sentence Objects .-- 7. "They say, ' This shall be,' and it is."
 - 8. "Athens FOUND that neither art nor science could avail against depravity of morals."

II. OBJECTS OF PHRASES-Infinitive.

- Word Objects. -9. "How I love to SEE thee, Golden, evening sun!"
 - 10. "I come to BURY Cæsar, not to PRAISE him."
- Phrase Objects.—11. "He endeavored to prevent our being tossed about by every wind of doctrine."
 - 12. "It is difficult to DOUBT his having seen military service."
- Sentence Objects .- 18. "This goes to PROVE what strange creatures we are."
 - 14. "The Governor commands me to sax, that he has no further business with the Senate,"

Participial.

- Word Objects.-15. "Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle."
 - 16. "FINDING fault, never does any good."
- Phrase Objects.—17. "By opposing your going to college, your father abridged your usefulness."

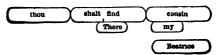
Prepositional.

- Word Objects .- 19. "There came to the beach a poor exile of Erin."
 - 20. "You are a much greater loser by his death."
- Phrase Objects.—21. "In the matter or making and receiving presents, much discretion is required."
 - 22. "I had no knowledge of there being any connection between them."—Stone.
- Sentence Objects.—23. "And all the air a solemn stillness holds— Save where the beetle wheels his droning flight."

Let the above Sentences be analyzed and parsed after the following

MODEL.

There thou shalt find my cousin Beatrice.



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS	The Subject "Thou." The Predicate "Shalt find." The Object "Cousin."
Adjuncts	Of the Subject There." Of the Predicate [Logical] "Beatrica."

PARSED.

- "There" ... is an Element in the Sentence—Adjunct Word—Adverb—of place—modifies "shalt find."
- "Thou"....An Element in the Sentence—Principal Element—Subject—Word—Pronoun—Second Person—Singular Number—Subjective Case. According to Rule 1, "The Subject of a Sentence is in the Subjective Case."
- "Shalt find" is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element
 —Predicate—Verb and Verb—Indicative Mode—Future Tense—Second Person—Singular Number.
 Rule 2, "A Verb in Predicate must agree with its Subject in Person and Number."
- "My".....is an Element in the Sentence—Adjunct—Word—
 Adjective—Specifying—Possessive—limits "cousin."
 Rule 7, "Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe."
- "Cousin"...is an Element in the Sentence—Principal Element— Word—Noun—Common—Third Person—Singular Number—Objective Case. Rule 3, "The Object of a Sentence or of a Phrase is in the Objective Case."
- "Beatrice" .. is an Attendant Element—a Logical Adjunct—a Noun—Proper—Feminine Gender—Third Person—Singular Number—Independent Case.

GRAMMATIC FALLACIES.

Let the Pupil correct the following Sentences, giving the proper authority for each correction:

- 1. "Who did Albert marry?"
- 2. "They that assist me, I will assist."
- 3. "Whosoever the President fancies he appoints to office."
- 4. "Who do you think I met this morning?"
- 5. "He who will place this sentence in diagram we will applaud."
- 6. "They that call on us we will visit."
- 7. "The man who you introduced to me, has called again."
- 8. "Thou only have we met in all our wanderings."
- 9. "Will you let Anna and I go to the concert?"
- 10. "They from my boyhood, I have known,"

PRONOUNS.

Rule 4.—A Pronoun must agree with its Antecedent in Gender, Person, and Number.

OBS. 1.—Pronouns in the Possessive form, follow the same laws of agreement with their Antecedents, as those applicable to Substantive Pronouns.

REM.—The Antecedent of a Pronoun is the Word, Phrase, or Sentence which the Pronoun represents.

OF GENDER.

REM. 1.—The Gender of a Personal Pronoun of the Singular number is determined by its *form*. (See Declension, p. 93.)

That of all other Pronouns is determined by their Antecedents, or by the context.

NOTE 1.—The Gender of a Pronoun should correspond to that of its Antecedent.

EXAMPLES.-1. Mary was in Savannah when she wrote last.

2. Ernest lost his top before he had used it.

EXCEPTION 1.—The Neuter Pronoun it may represent young infants, male or female.

EXAMPLE.—The child will sleep when you sing to it.

EXCEPTION 2.—He or she may represent things without sex when they are personified.

EXAMPLES.—1. "The Angel of Death spread his wings on the blast,
And breathed in the face of the foe as he passed."

2. "When Fortune smiles she is coquetting."

Obs. 2.—Singular Nouns of different Genders connected by or or nor must have different words to represent the Genders of the Antecedents.

Examples .-- 1. "Please ask Albert or Mary for his or her pencil."

2. Anna or Ernest has lost his or her book.*

Obs. 3.—Custom renders it proper to presume that Nouns which include males and females are Masculine—unless otherwise determined by the context.

EXAMPLES.—1. "The oldest inhabitant in the town related the story of his pioneer life."

2. "Children should revere an aged person, whether he be learned or unlearned."

OBS. 4.—A Pronoun representing a Collective Noun, a Phrase, or a Sentence, should be of the Neuter Gender.

ERRORS IN GENDER.

- 1. "The star of the west sends her last lingering ray."
- 2. "Look not on the wine, when he giveth his color in the cup."
- 3. "No boy or girl may leave her seat without permission."
- 4. "No boy or girl here can solve that problem unless he has assistance."
- 5. "No teacher should require a pupil to do what she can not do."
- 6. "The moon at length, apparent queen, unveiled its peerless light, and o'er the dark its silver mantle threw."

Corrected .- 1. The star of the west sends its last lingering ray.

Let the Pupils correct the others.

PERSON.

REM.—The Person of a Personal Pronoun is determined by its form. That of all other Pronouns is determined by their Antecedents. Hence,

NOTE 2.—The form of a Personal Pronoun should indicate its Person and Number.

Note 3.—The Second Person, "Solemn Style," should not be used in familiar conversation—nor that of the "Familiar Style" in addresses to the Deity—nor should the two forms be used in the same Sentence.

^{*} The difficulty of rendering such expressions with elegance has led to the error of using the Plural "their" for the two Singular words "his" and "her." But the Pupil should be taught to prefer accuracy to elegance.

EXAMPLES.

Improper .- 1. "Well, my lad, hast thou seen my new kite?"

- 2. " You have my book and I have thine."
- 3. "Neither art thou such a one as to be ignorant of what you are."
- 4. "How can you despise her who without thy pity dies?"
- 5. "Can you refuse that I share in thy woes?"
- "Ere you remark another's sin, Bid thy own conscience look within."—Gay.

Corrected .- 1. Well, my lad, have you seen my new kite?

Let the Pupils correct the others.

Obs. 5.—The Pronoun "it" often has an Indefinite or undetermined Antecedent; and may then represent any Gender, Person, or Number.

EXAMPLES .- 1. " It snows." 2. " IT was my father."

- 3. "It was the students that broke that desk."
- 4. "A pleasant thing IT is, to behold the sun,"
- 5. "It is possible that we have erred." (See Diagram, p. 48.)

Note 4.—When a Pronoun has two or more Antecedents differing in Person, it must agree in Person with one of them—according to the following established Rules.

- (a) If both Antecedents are of the Third Person, the Pronoun must be of the *Third Person*; as,
 - "John and James always accomplish what they undertake."
 John or James always accomplishes what he undertakes.
- (b) If one is of the Third Person and one of the Second, the Pronoun must be of the Second Person; as,
 - " You and Ernest may amuse yourselves as you please."
- (c) If they are of the Third and the First, or of the Second and the First, the Pronoun must be of the First Person.
 - 1. "Anna and I always perform the tasks our mother assigns to us."
 - 2. " You and I can not always have what we desire."

POSITION.

NOTE 5.—Pronouns of different Persons, used in the same connection, should have their appropriate position.

Obs. 1.—The Second Person is placed first—the Third next, and the First last.

EXAMPLE. - You and James and I have been invited.

Obs. 2.—But when a fault is confessed, this order is sometimes reversed.

EXAMPLE.—" I and my people have sinned."

Obs. 3.—This position obtains also when we acknowledge a defeat or a common calamity.

EXAMPLE.—"Then I and you and all of us fell down,
Whilst bloody Treason flourished over us."

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

- 1. "Will you go to the concert with me and Clara?"
- 2. "John and you may parse that sentence."
- 3. "I think that I and Anna and Mary are entitled to prizes."
- 4. Jack and I and father caught that squirrel.

NOTE 6.—The Pronoun "them" should not be used Adjectively.

Incorrect .- 1. Bring me them books.

- 2. "Only see how them big trees bow to the breeze."
- 8. "No one knows when them boys study their lessons."
- 4. " Them are my sentiments."
- 5. "Which of them housen does your father live in?"

Corrected .- 1. Bring me those books.

Let the Pupils correct the others.

NUMBER

REM.—Personal Pronouns indicate unity or plurality by their forms—all other Pronouns by their Antecedents.

NOTE 7.—A Pronoun should have a Singular form when it represents one Singular Antecedent.

EXAMPLE.—Henry was quite well when I last saw HIM.

EXCEPTION.—The Pronoun You has the same form in both Numbers.

EXAMPLES.-1. "James, when will you be prepared for college?"

2. Boys, will you assist me to arrange these desks?

NOTE 8 .- A Pronoun should have a Singular form

when it represents two or more Singular Antecedents taken separately.

Example.—" Honor or disgrace is sure to him only who seeks it."

NOTE 9.—A Pronoun should have a Singular form when it represents a Collective Noun indicating Unity.

EXAMPLE.—I found the school more orderly than it had been under my administration.

NOTE 10.—A Pronoun should have a Plural form when it has one Antecedent indicating Plurality.

EXAMPLE.—Few men are as wise as they might be.

NOTE 11.—A Pronoun should have a Plural form when it has two or more Antecedents taken collectively.

EXAMPLE.—Mary and Anna always accomplish what they undertake.

NOTE 12.—A Pronoun should have a Plural form when its Antecedent is a Collective Noun indicating Plurality.

EXAMPLE.—The committee were unanimous in every measure which they discussed.

Let the Pupils correct the following

Errors.—(See Note 7.)

- 1. Let any pupil put this in Diagram if they can.
- 2. Each pupil may select a sentence for themselves.
- 8, "Every true believer has the spirit of God in them."-Barclay.
- 4. "Every member of a family should know their duty."
- 5. "Every one must judge of their own feelings."
- 6. "Albert and Charles have each their peculiarities."
- 7. "Every body has recollections which they think worthy of recording."
- 8. "Every body trembled for themselves or their friends."
- 9. "Let every student now attend to their own lesson."

(Note 8.)

- 10. "Every mechanic and every artist had full pay for their services." (See Diagram, p. 230.)
 - 11. "If Clara or Anna will analyze this Sentence, they shall be complimented."
 - 12. "Gold or silver will be paid if they are demanded."
 - 13. "James or Henry may sweep the school-room if they are willing."
- 14. "I expect George or Charles will favor us with their company this evening."
- 15. "Neither poverty nor wealth necessarily secure happiness to their possessor."

- 16. "No act nor word nor thought, whether they be good or evil, will escape the judgment."

 (Notes 9, 10, 11, 12.)
- 17. The Council was in session until ten, when they adjourned to the next day."
- 18. "The school was called to order at nine; but they were dismissed at one."
 - 19. "The nobility failed on every measure it proposed."
 - 20. "The peasantry carried every measure it brought forward."
- 21. "Mankind can never exceed the limit of knowledge nature has prescribed for it."
 - 22. "The house and barn were insured for more than it cost."
 - 23. "Candor and frankness manifests itself in his countenance."
 - 24. "The committee were unanimous on every measure which it considered."

Note 13.—A Pronoun should not be used with its Noun in the same construction.

EXAMPLES OF ERRORS.

- 1, "Our new teacher, she who teaches algebra, will call here to-night."
- 2. "We called on Sarah, she that gives lessons on the guitar."
- 8. "John, he is the boy that takes all the prizes."
- 4. "My banks, they are furnished with bees."

Corrected .- 1. "Our new teacher, who teaches algebra, will call here to-night."

Let the Pupils correct the others.

Obs.—But Compound Personal Pronouns, and sometimes Simple Pronouns, may be used with their Antecedents for *emphasis* or for Rhythm.

Examples.-1. "The moon herself is lost in heaven."

2. "His teeth they chatter, chatter still."

REM.—Words thus added have a Rhetorical, not a Grammatical force. (See "Words of Euphony," p. 174.)

RELATIVE OR CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

Obs. 1.—A Relative Pronoun always performs a double office, being used Substantively and Conjunctively.

EXAMPLE.—He who studies, will He will improve who studies

- "Who" relates to "he," and is the Subject of studies; hence, a Substantive.
 - "Who studies," is a Sentence used to describe "he."

"Who" introduces the Sentence; hence, it performs the office of a Conjunction.

Note 14.—The Antecedent of a Relative Pronoun determines its Person and Number, but not its Case.

- 1. I who write. 2. Thou who writest. 3. He who writes.
- 4. "He whom thou lovest, is sick."

NOTE 15.—In the choice of Relative Pronouns, that form should be selected which is in accordance with reputable usage.

Obs. 2.—The Antecedent commonly decides the appropriate Relative Pronoun.

			EXA	MPLES.		
1.	The The The The	last largest Such Such More More	man boat boat people boats people boats	as than than	came came came came came came came	return ed.
2.	I rec	eived	Rim w That w All th Such as More th	hom y	ou se	nt. nt. nt. nt.

REM.—The above examples suggest the following LAWS for the choice of Relative Pronouns.

WHO.

Note 16.—The Relative **Who** is properly applied to intelligent beings and to things personified.

- EXAMPLES.-1. "There are those whom I can not forgive."
 - 2. "Too low they build, who build beneath the stars."

EXCEPTION.—But Collective Nouns, and names of persons, taken as names merely, or as titles, should be followed by the Relative which.

- Examples.-1. "The multitude which followed swelled the notes of joy."
 - 2. "The regiment which Quinby commanded suffered most in this engagement."
 - 3. "We call Arthur 'our little Demosthenes,' which means supprior orator."

Let the Pupil correct the following

Errors,-(See Note 13.)

- 1. "Anna loves to study; but Sarah, she is ever idle."
- 2. "Whoever believeth not therein, they shall perish."
- 3. "Whom, when they had washed, they laid her in an upper chamber."

(Note 16.)

- 4. "All pupils which have recited may be dismissed."
- 5. "Those pupils which study grammar should speak correctly."
- 6. "The conductor introduced me to the man of which you spoke."
- 7. "I did not meet the lady there which you spoke of."

(Exception to Note 16.)

- 8. "The committee who were appointed failed to report."
- 9. "He instructed the crowds who surrounded him."
- 10. "The court, who gives currency to manners, ought to be exemplary."
- 11. "The nations among whom they took their rise, were not savage."
- 12. "The convention who were called accomplished nothing."
- 13. "Solomon was the wisest king whom the world has ever seen."

WHICH.

NOTE 17.—The Relative Which is properly used to represent things.

- EXAMPLES.-1. "The books which I left, bring with thee,"
 - 2. "That life is long which answers life's great end."

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

- 1. "They are like so many puppets who are moved by wires."
- 2. "And the ants, who are collected by the smell, are burned."
- 8. "He was met by a dolphin, who sometimes swam before him."
- 4. "He encountered the crowd, who was going up the street."
- 5. "I have a temple in every heart who owns my influence."

THAT.

Note 18.—The Relative **That** may be used to represent *persons* or *things*.

- OBS. 1.—That is generally used when its Antecedent is
 - (1.) Another Pronoun.
 - (2.) A Noun limited by the Adjectives all, any, same, no, or by any Adjective of the Superlative degree.
 - (3.) Two or more Words denoting both persons and things.

- EXAMPLES.-1. "Who that has a proper self-respect, can chew tobacco?"
 - 2. "It was not I that did it."
 - 3. "He that attends to his interior self, has business."
 - 4. "Them that honor me, I will honor."
 - 5. "All that a man hath will he give for his life."
 - "Not any of the boys that come to this school write compositions."
 - 7. "He was the same man that taught me grammar."
 - 8. "The wisest man that the world has seen."
 - 9. "The best advice that I can give is this."
 - 10. "All the people and the cattle that were on the island were drowned."
- OBS. 2.—The Relative that is generally used to introduce an Adjective Sentence used specially to restrict or specify its Antecedent.
 - Examples.-1. " The man that dares traduce...is not a man."
 - 2. "He that loveth wine and oil shall not be rich."
 - 3. "The evil that men do, live after them."
- REM.—Variety, elegance, and other laws of Taste, often decide the proper selection of the Relative.

ERRORS in the use of Relative Pronouns.

- 1. " Who is she who comes clothed in robes of green?"
- 2. "He is not the person who he appeared to be."
- 3. "Was it thou or the wind who shut the door?"
- 4. "All which can be done to render the definitions of grammar accurate."

 —Murray.
- "The Nominative expresses the name of the person or thing which acts."

 —Hilly's Grammar, p. 19.
- "The Passive Verb denotes Action received by the person or thing which is its Nominative."—Kirkham's Grammar, p. 157.
- 7. "The same ornaments which we admire in a private apartment are unseemly in a temple."—Murray's Grammar, p. 128.
- 8. "Massilon was the greatest preacher which modern times have produced."
- 9. One of the first who introduced it was Montesquieu."—Murray's Grammar, p. 125.
 - 10. "This is the most useful art which men possess."—Murray's Key, p. 275.
 - 11. The humming-bird is the smallest bird which is found in this country.
- 12. The commissioner has secured the men and the money which he contracted for.
- 13. "The same men who stole the horse obtained the reward offered for his eturn."
 - 14. "No man whom I conversed with knew the cause of the accident."
 - 15. Every vine which William grafted grew vigorously.
 - 16. "The family with whom I boarded has gone to Kansas."



17. "John was the first man who noticed me."

Corrected.-1. "Who is she that comes in robes of green?"

Let the Pupils correct the others.

Note 19.—Avoid the improper use of Adverbial Words for Adverbial Phrases.

Incorrect.-1. "There is no rule given how truth may be ascertained."

- "That darkness of character where we can see no heart."— Murray's Key, p. 236.
- 3. "This is the very house where he died."
- "By Prepositions we express the manner how a thing was done."—Murray's Grammar, p. 123.
- 5. "I have been visiting the house where I was reared."
- 6. "I do not see the means how you will do it."-Schoolmaster.

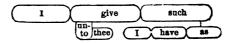
Corrected .- 1. "There is no rule given by which truth may be ascertained."

Let the Pupils correct the others.

AS.

Note 20.—As, used as a Relative or Conjunctive Pronoun, always follows the word Such.

EXAMPLE.—Such as I have, give I unto thee.

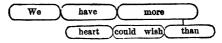


THAN.

Note 21.—**Than**, used as a Relative or Conjunctive Pronoun, follows the word *More*, or some other word in the Comparative form.

EXAMPLES.-1. "We have more than heart could wish."

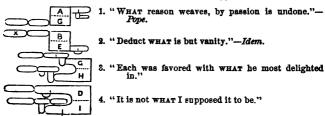
2. "There was more due than was ever paid."



The Double Pronoun WHAT.

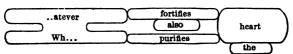
OBS. 3.—When the Relative "what" is used substantively, it usually bears a part in the structure of two sentences at the same

time. It is equivalent to "that which," or "the things which." The Antecedent part may be the Subject (A) or the Object (B) of a Principal Sentence, the Object (C) of a Phrase in that Sentence, or used in Predicate (D). The Consequent or Relative part introduces an Auxiliary Sentence, which qualifies the Antecedent, and may be the Subject (E) or the Object (G) of that Sentence, the Object of a Phrase (H), or used in Predicate with a Verb (I).



Obs. 4.—Whoever, whosoever, whatever, whatsoever, and who (used for whoever), have a construction similar to what.

Examples .- 1. " Whatever purifies fortifies also the heart."



- 2. "Whoever sees, admires her."
- 3. You can have whichever you prefer.

OBS. 5.—The Compound Pronouns what, whatever, and whatsoever, sometimes combine an Adjective and a Substantive office at the same time.

Examples.--1. "What money he had was lost."



- 2. What sights he wished, he saw.
- 3. Whatever hope he had has vanished.
- 4. He performed whatever duty was assigned to him.



Obs. 6.—By the poets, the Antecedent of a Relative Pronoun is sometimes elegantly suppressed.

EXAMPLE.—" Who lives to Nature, rarely can be poor; Who lives to Fancy, never can be rich."

Obs. 7.—That is sometimes improperly used for the Relative what.

EXAMPLE.—" Take that is thine."

OBS. 8.—What is sometimes substituted for an Adverbial Phrase.

EXAMPLE.—" What [in what respect] shall it profit a man?"

Obs. 9.—What is sometimes used as an Exclamation.

EXAMPLE.—" What! Is thy servant a dog?"

Note 22.—The two words, but what—and also but that—should not be used for the Conjunction that.

EXAMPLES .- 1. "I did not doubt but what you would come."

2. "I did not doubt but that you would come."

Corrected .- I did not doubt that you would come.

Position of Pronouns.

NOTE 23.—In the structure of Sentences, Pronouns should be so placed as most clearly to indicate their Antecedents.

OBS. 1.—Generally we place a Pronoun after its Antecedent.

EXAMPLES.—1. The Boy injured himself.

2. "The Rose that all are praising."

EXCEPTION 1.—Interrogative Pronouns precede the Nouns or Pronouns which they represent.

Examples.—1. " Who will show us any good?"

2. "What can compensate for loss of character?"

EXCEPTION 2.—The Pronoun it, having an explanatory Phrase or Sentence used as a Logical Adjunct, should precede that Phrase or Sentence.

Example.—"How is it possible not to love her?"

EXCEPTION 3.—The Antecedent, used as an explanatory word, often follows the Pronoun.

EXAMPLE.—"Ye crags and peaks! I'm with you once again."

POSITION OF THE RELATIVE.

Obs. 1.—When a Relative is the Subject or the Object of an Auxiliary Sentence, it should be placed next its Antecedent.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Can ALL that optics teach unfold Thy form to please me so?"

> 2. "The GRAVE, that never spoke before, Hath found, at length, a tongue to chide."

EXCEPTION.—Sometimes, for rhetorical effect, words of special importance may be placed between the Relative and its Antecedent.

Example.—"O, They love least that let men know their love."

Obs. 2.—When the Relative is the Object of a Prepositional Phrase, it comes between its Antecedent and the Auxiliary Sentence with which that Phrase is construed.

EXAMPLE .- "We prize that most for which we labor most."

REM.—"For which" modifies "labor"—"which" relates to "that."

Obs. 3.—The Relative that, used as the Object of a Preposition, is placed before the Preposition. Whom, which, and what, are placed after their Prepositions.

EXAMPLES .-- 1. "I have meat to eat that ye know not of."

- 2. "Withhold not good from them to whom it is due."
- 3. "The world in which we sojourn is not our home."
- 4. "We could not learn for what he came."

Obs. 4.—The Relative—when the Subject of a Sentence, or the Object of a Phrase—can rarely be omitted without weakening the force of the expression.

EXAMPLES.-1. "For is there aught in sleep [] can charm the wise?"

2. "The time may come [] you need not fly."

Obs. 5.—But the suppression of the Relative is allowed when it is the Object of a Sentence, or when the position of the words is such as to prevent ambiguity or weaken the expression.

EXAMPLES.—1. "History is all the light we have in many cases; and we receive from it a great part of the useful truths we have."

But they that fight for freedom, undertake The noblest cause mankind can have at stake."

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

- 1. "The first love is the last to leave the memory which enters the heart."
- 2. "The Military Academy seems to be one of the most popular schools in the city which De Graff instituted."



- 3. "The boy should bring a certificate from his former teacher, who applies for admission to this school."
 - 4. "Every man contributed to the relief of the sufferers whom I met."
- 5. "The day I entered college was remarkable as the day—the great meteoric shower first fell."
 - 6. "Alexander continued four days in the place-he was."
 - 7. "Darius was but twenty miles from the place-they then were."
- 8. "They are right when they serve for uses—they were made."—Collier, p. 99.
- 9. "To give directions as to the manner—it should be studied."—Halleck's Grammar, p. 9.
 - 10. "The book which I read that story in, is at school."
 - 11. "I could not deny but what he was the man."
 - 12. "No one can doubt but what grammar is a pleasing study."
 - 13. "I have no doubt but that you will receive the highest honors."
 - 14. "There is no question but that the moon revolves on its axis."

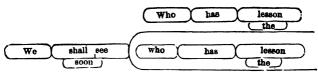
INTERROGATIVES.

Note 24.—Interrogative Pronouns are construed like Personal Pronouns.

- EXAMPLES.-1. As the Subject of a Sentence-Who has the lesson?
 - 2. As the Object of a Sentence-Whom seek ye?
 - 3. As the Object of a Phrase-For WHAT do we labor?

Obs. 1.—The Interrogative force of such Pronouns is commonly suppressed when they introduce Substantive Auxiliary Sentences.

EXAMPLES.-1. Who has the lesson?



- 2. We shall soon see who has the lesson.
- 8. Whom seek ye?
- 4. Ye still refuse to tell whom ye seek.
- 5. We scarcely know for what we labor.

OBS. 2.—But the Principal Sentence may remain interrogative.

- EXAMPLES.-1. Which shall have the premium?
 - 2. "Who shall decide which shall have the premium?"
 - 8. How can you tell whom the teacher will reward?
 - 4. By whom did you learn for whom I voted?

Obs. 3.—The word which answers a question has a construction similar to that of the word which asks it.

EXAMPLES .- 1. Whose book have you? Mary's.

- 2. What could I do? Nothing.
- 3. Where did you see him? In Rochester.
- 4. Whence came they? From Ireland.

REM.—" Mary's" specifies "book"—" in Rochester" modifies "did see"—" from Ireland" modifies "came."

OBS. 4.—The Interrogative what, followed by the Conjunctions though, if, and some others, commonly belongs to a Principal Sentence understood, on which the following Sentence depends for sense.

EXAMPLES.—1. "What if the foot aspired to be the head?"
What [would be the consequence] if the foot, etc.

2. "What though Destruction sweep these lovely plains?" What [occasion have we to despair] though Destruction sweep these lovely plains?

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

RULE 5.—Adjective Pronouns are substituted for the Nouns which they qualify.

Note 1.—When used as Subjects, each, either, neither, this, that, and all other Adjective Pronouns indicating unity, require their Verbs to be in the Singular Number.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.-1. Each believes his own. 2. Either is sufficient.

3. " Neither of them has any reputation."

Incorrect .- 4. " Are either of the boys absent to-day ?"

- "Do you prefer grammar to logic? Neither of them have any charms for me."
- "Each of those three boys merit the highest honors of the class."

NOTE 2.—These, those, many, others, several, and other Adjective Pronouns indicating plurality, require their Verbs to be in the Plural.

EXAMPLES.-1. " These are the things which defile."

2. " Those were halcyon days."

Note 3.—Any, all, like, some, none, more, and such, may have Verbs in the Singular or Plural, according as they indicate unity or plurality.

EXAMPLES.—1. "None but the upright in heart are capable of being true friends,"—Y. L. Friend.

- 2. " None has arrived."
- 3. "All are but parts of one stupendous whole."
- 4. "What if the field be lost? All is not lost."
- 5. "The like were never seen before."
- 6. " Like produces like."
- 7. "Objects of importance must be portrayed by objects of importance; such as have grace, by things graceful."
- 8. "Nestled at its root
 Is Beauty; such as blooms not in the glare
 Of the broad sun."
- OBS. 1.—Qualifying and some Specifying Adjectives receive the definitive "the" before them, on becoming Adjective Pronouns. They may be qualified by Adjectives or by Adverbs, according as the thing or the quality is to be limited.
 - EXAMPLES .- 1. " The good alone are great."
 - 2. "The professedly GOOD are not always really so."
 - 8. "The much good done by him will not soon be forgotten."
 - "Professedly" modifies the quality; hence, it is an Adverb.
 - "Much" limits the things done; hence, it is an Adjective.
- Obs. 2.—In the analysis of a Sentence, each, other, one another, and similar distributives, are properly parsed as single words.

 But, in strict construction the parts perform different offices.

EXAMPLES.—They assisted each other.

They assisted—each [assisted] the other.

- OBS. 3.—When two things are mentioned in contrast, and severally referred to by Adjective Pronouns—this and these refer to the latter—that and those to the former.
 - EXAMPLES.—1. "Here living tea-pots stand, one arm held out,
 ONE bent; the handle this, and that the spout."—Pope.
 - "Farewell, my friends; farewell, my foes;
 My peace with THESE, my love with those."—Burns.
 - "Some place the bliss in action; some, in ease:
 Those call it pleasure; and contentment THESE."

INDEPENDENT CASE.

RULE 6.—A Noun or a Pronoun, not dependent on any other word in construction, is in the Independent Case.

Obs. 1.—We have seen (p. 189) that the framework of a Sentence—its Principal Elements—are the Subject, the Predicate, and the Object; that the Subject and the Object are the Substantive Elements—both depending for their Syntax on the Predicate (p. 208)—the former as Subjective Case, the latter as Objective. Nouns and Pronouns in all other conditions, not being thus dependent on the Verb for their Syntax, are said to be Independent (p. 88); and that this generic term includes the following specific conditions:

1. The names of persons or of things addressed,

Appellatives.

- Nouns and Pronouns used to introduce Independent Phrases, Absolute.
- 3. Nouns and Pronouns used as complementary of Verbs and of Participles,

in Predicate.

4. Nouns and Pronouns used explanatory of other Nouns and Pronouns,

in Apposition.

5. Nouns and Pronouns used simply as Names—Cards, Signs, Titles,

Naming.

To this last class may be added all Nouns and Pronouns used for Euphony.

Hence,

Note 1.—The name of a person or thing addressed is in the Independent Case.

Examples.—1. "Friends, Romans, Countrymen."

2. "Come, gentle spring—ethereal mildness, come."

REM.—In the last example the word thou, understood, is the proper subject of "come." The words "spring" and "mildness" are addressed, and are independent in construction. (See p. 85.)

NOTE 2.—A Noun or a Pronoun, used as the Leader of an Independent Phrase, is in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.-1. The Hour having arrived, we commenced the exercises.

 "Thus talking, HAND in hand, alone they passed On to their blissful bower." Hand being in hand.

(See Diagram, p. 209.)

Note 3.—A Noun or a Pronoun, used in Predicate with a Verb, is in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Thou art a scholar." 2. It is I. 3. "God is love."

4. "He maketh the storm a calm."

5. "It was the students* that broke the glass."

OBS.—A Noun or a Pronoun used in Predicate, may have the form of the Subjective or of the Objective Case.

Examples .-- 1. "I thought it to be him."

2. "It was not met that you saw."

3. "It was not I that did it."

REM.—This idiom is established by good authority—ancient and modern—and grammarians can not well alter the custom.

"Nescire quid acciderit antequam natus es, est semper esse puerum."

"Not to know what happened before you was born, is always to be a boy."

Here, "puerum" (boy) has the form of the Accusative Case (Objective), and can not be in the Nominative.

Note 4.—A Noun or a Pronoun used to explain a preceding Noun or Pronoun, is in the Independent Case.

Must "students" "agree in case" with "it" because they indicate the "same persons?" Then why not also agree in Gender and Number? But is "students" of the Neuter Gender and Singular Number because "it" is? If then these words do not agree in their inherent qualities—Gender and Number—why claim that they do in the accidental relation of case?

Another example, "The teacher whom I love, has gone." Here "teacher" and "whom" indicate the same person. Must they, therefore, "agree in case?" Is it well to hold and teach an error, only because it is venerable?—and reject

a truth, only because we did not learn it before we learned the error?

^{*} The notion that "two or more Nouns meaning the same person or thing agree in Case" is fallacious. Case is only a condition of Substantives dependent on their relation or non-relation to other words—an accidental quality; but Gender and Number are attributes inherent in the things themselves—without reference to other words. Hence if identity demands any thing, it must be inherent qualities—Gender, Number, and Person. But in the example given, not even these qualities inhere.

[&]quot;It was the students that broke the glass."

[†] Well-established custom requires the same Rulk in English that is given in our Greek Grammars. "The Antecedent is sometimes put, by attraction, in the case of the relative."

- OBS. 1.—This Note applies also to Phrases and to Sentences. Examples.—1. It is our *duty* to STUDY.
 - 2. "It is possible that we mistake." (See Diagram, p. 244.)
- Obs. 2.—An Independent Noun or Pronoun is properly a Logical Adjunct when it is used to describe or limit another word.

EXAMPLES .- Paul the Apostle-Peter the GREAT.

REM.—"Apostle" describes "Paul," by limiting the application of that name to a particular individual.

Note 5.—A Noun or a Pronoun denoting the Subject of remark—the title of a book—used in address, in exclamation, or for Euphony, is in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Our Fathers! where are they? and the Prophets! do they live forever?"

- 2. "Wright's Orthography."
- 8. The Military Academy,
- 4. "The moon herself is lost in heaven."

Obs. 3.—In this Note are properly included Nouns and Pronouns repeated for the sake of emphasis.

EXAMPLE.—"This, THIS is thinking free."

Obs. 4.—Adverbial Sentences are often elegantly condensed into Independent Phrases.

Examples.

Sentence.—When the hour had arrived, we commenced the exercises. Phrase.—The hour having arrived, we commenced the exercises. (See Diagrams, p. 209.)

REM 1.—"When the hour had arrived" is a Grammatical Adjunct of "commenced," an Adverbial Sentence. "Hour" is the Subject of that Sentence; hence, in the Nominative Case.

REM. 2.—"The hour having arrived" is a Logical Adjunct of "commenced," an *Independent Phrase*. "Hour" is the Leader of that Phrase; hence, in the *Independent Case*.

Obs. 5.—By a custom not to be recommended nor allowed, except by "poetic license," an Independent Phrase is sometimes preceded by a Preposition, which does not indicate a relation, nor properly connect it to an Antecedent.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "WITH arm in arm, the forest rose on high, And lessons gave of brotherly regard."
 - "Upon our horse becoming weary, we procured lodgings at a private house."
- REM. 1.—" With" is not necessary to the grammatical construction of the Sentence—its affix being simply to preserve the rhythm.
 - REM. 2.—The use of "upon" is unnecessary and improper.

EXERCISES IN THE USE OF THE INDEPENDENT CASE.

- 1. O Absalom! my son, my son!
- 2. Lend me your songs, ye nightingales!
- 3. How is it possible not to feel grateful for such benefits!
- 4. Other things being equal, we prefer a fruit-growing climate.
- Thou art the ruins of the noblest man That ever lived in the tide of time.
- That ever lived in the tide of time.

 6. Henceforth I never will be Romeo.
- 7. John dislikes to be called an idle boy.
- 8. That little indiscretion made him my enemy.
- 9. His teeth they chatter still.

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

- 1. "Me being satisfied, you ought to be so too."
- 2. My being fatigued, John finished my task for me.
- 3. I thought it to be he.
- 4. It was not me that did it.

ADJUNCTS.

REM.—The term Adjunct, as used in grammar, embraces all those Elements in Sentences and in Phrases that are used to limit, qualify, or modify other Elements.

NOTE 1.—Adjuncts belong to the words which they modify or describe.

THE FORMS OF ADJUNCTS.

Obs. 1.—Adjuncts may consist of.... \{\begin{aligned} \begin{aligned} \begin{a

EXAMPLES.-1. A Word.-We were walking homeward.

- 2. A Phrase.-We were walking toward home.
- 8. A Sentence.—" Let me stand here till thou remember it."

NOTE 2.—In the use of Adjuncts, that form should be employed which will most fully convey the sense intended.

Obs. 1.—Many Adjunct Words, Phrases, and Sentences are interchangeable.

EXAMPLES.

Word Adjuncts.-1. "An honest man is the noblest work of God."

2. " Dark DAYS are remembered."

Phrase Adjuncts.—3. A MAN of honesty is the noblest work of God.

4. Let him remember the DAYS of darkness.

Sentence Adjuncts.-5. A man who is honest, is the noblest work of God.

6. Days which are dark, are long remembered.

Obs. 2.—But this interchange of Adjuncts is not always admissible.

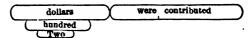
EXAMPLES.

Correct .- "The TIME of my departure is at hand."

Incorrect.—My departure's TIME is at hand. (See Obs. 3, p. 278.)

Obs. 3.—Adjuncts are often Complex. One Adjunct Word may be qualified or limited by another Word.

Examples.-1. Two hundred dollars were contributed.



2. The CLOUD's deep voice. 8. The WIND's low sigh.

Ors. 4.—An Adjunct Word may be limited by a Phrase.

EXAMPLES.—1. "From the shore, EAT into caverns, by the restless wave."

3. "Wisdom is too high for a fool."



OBS. 5.—An Adjunct Word may be limited by a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.-1. "He called so loud that all the hollow deep resounded."

2. "Off as the morning dawns should gratitude ascend." (See Diagram, p. 46.)

OBS. 6.—An Adjunct Phrase may be limited by a Word.

EXAMPLE. -- Arthur went almost to Boston. (See Diagram, p. 254.)

OBS. 7.—An Adjunct Sentence may be limited by a Word.

EXAMPLE.—"Not as the conqueror comes,

They the true-hearted came." (See p. 254.)

THE OFFICES OF ADJUNCTS.

PRIN.—All Adjuncts are.... \{ Adjectives or Adverbs.

- Nore 3.—(a) All Adjuncts of Substantives are Adjectives.
 - (b) All Adjuncts of Verbs are Adverbs.
 - (c) All Adjuncts of Adjectives are Adverbs.
 - (d) All Adjuncts of Adverbs are Adverbs.

OBS. 8.—Adjuncts may be attached to any of the five Elements of Sentences.

- 1. To the Subject...." The KING of shadows loves a shining mark."
 (See Diagram, p. 54.)
- 2. To the Predicate... "And when its yellow luster smiled O'er mountains yet untrod,

 Each mother held aloft her child To bless the bow of God."

 (See Diagram, p. 64.)
- 8. To the Object" They undertake the noblest CAUSE mankind can have at stake." (See Diagram, p. 59.)
- 4. To the Adjective .. "The truly virtuous man is not regardless of his reputation."
- To the Adverb ... "Wisdom is too high for a fool."
 "OFT as the morning dawns should gratitude ascend."
 (See Diagram, p. 42.)

LOGICAL ADJUNCTS.

REM.—In addition to Grammatical Adjuncts, we have what may properly be called Logical Adjuncts. These are commonly Substantives, independent in construction, yet serving indirectly to limit or modify other Elements. (See p. 29.)

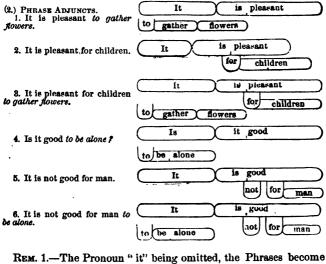
Logical Adjuncts may consist of..... \\ \begin{align*} \begin{alig

(1.) WORD ADJUNCTS.—Peter the Hermit resembled, in temperament, Peter the Apostle.

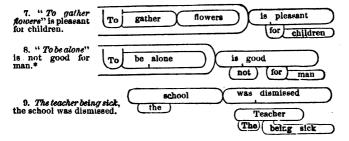
Peter resembled Peter

Hermit in temperament Apostle the the

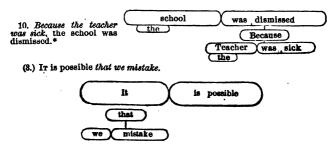
REM.—"Hermit" and "Apostle" are Nouns, yet serve to distinguish the two men named "Peter." Hence they are Logical Adjuncts—Nouns—Proper—Independent in construction. (See p. 34.)



REM. 1.—The Pronoun "it" being omitted, the Phrases become the Subjects. Thus,

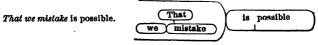


^{* &}quot;To gather flowers" and "to be alone" are Infinitive Phrases, and in Sentence (1) "to gather flowers" is a Logical Adjunct of "it," used to tell what the word "it" means. But in Sentence (7) "to gather flowers" is the Subject of "is pleasant." In Sentences (2), (3), and (7), "for children" is a Phrase, Prepositional, Adverbial, used as a Grammatical Adjunct of "is pleasant."



REM.—" That we mistake" limits the signification of the word "IT."

The Sentence may be substituted for the Pronoun. Thus,



For further Observations on Logical Adjuncts, see "INDEPENDENT CASE," Part II., p. 85.

ADJECTIVES.

Rule 7.—Adjectives belong to Nouns and Pronouns which they describe.

Obs. 1.—It should be remembered that any word whose most important office is to specify, qualify, or otherwise describe a person or a thing, is, therefore, an Adjective. (See Def. 97.) A word which is sometimes or generally used as some other "part of speech," may, in certain connections, be used Adjectively; and when thus used, it is an Adjective, whatever its form may be.

EXAMPLES.—An iron fence. Working oxen.

REM.—Every Adjective having its Substantive understood, becomes Pronominal. (See Adjective Pronouns, p. 97.)

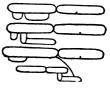
^{*} Logically considered, the Phrase "the leacher being sick," and the Sentence "Because the teacher was sick," are alike Modifying Adjuncts of the Predicate "was dismissed"—the Phrase assuming and the Sentence declaring the cause of the school's being dismissed. But the Phrase—having no word making a grammatical connection with the Predicate—is called a Logical Adjunct: whereas the Sentence—boing grammatically connected with its Principal by the Conjunction "because"—is said to be a Grammatical Adjunct.

OBS. 2.—An Adjective may consist of

A Word .- The recitation hour has arrived.

A Phrase.-The hour for recitation has arrived.

A Sentence.-The hour in which we recite has arrived.



ADJECTIVE WORDS.

OBS.—Adjectives describe things in two distinct methods:

1. As an ordinary epithet, in which the attribute is not asserted, but implied or assumed.

Examples.-1. A sweet apple. 2. A few inhabitants.

2. By asserting the attribute with the aid of a Verb or a Participle.

3. The apple is sweet. 4. The inhabitants are few.

THE FORMS OF ADJECTIVES.

REM. 1.—Many words in the English Language are primitive words, having forms peculiar to their Adjective office.

EXAMPLES.—Hard—soft—sour—sweet—good—bad—old—young.

REM. 2.—But most words used as Adjectives are Derivative Words—being formed from Nouns by the addition of suffixes.

EXAMPLES.—Arabian—virtuous—hopeful—masterly—children's.

REM. 3.—Many Adjectives have the same form as the Noun.

EXAMPLES.—A silver pencil—a gold pen—a stone bridge.

NOTE 1.—That form of the Adjective should be used which is in accordance with reputable usage.

OBS. 1.—An Adjective word denoting the *material* of its Substantive, should have the *Substantive* form; as, a *Gold* Pen, a *Silver* Pencil.

But an Adjective word denoting resemblance of the material should have its appropriate Adjective termination; as, "Golden harvest," "Silvery tide."

Obs. 2.—When two or more Adjectives belong to the same Noun, they may—

1. Severally qualify the Substantive only; or,

2. One Adjective may belong to the Noun as modified by the other.

EXAMPLES.-1. "He was a tall, athletic, vigorous man."

2. "Lamartine acted a conspicuous part in the late French Revolution."

REM.—"Tall," "athletic," and "vigorous," are Adjectives—each standing in the same relation to the Word "man."

"French" describes or limits "Revolution;" "late" limits "French Revolution."

Obs. 3.—This construction should be distinguished from that in which the Adjective—and not the Adjective and the Noun combined—is modified by an Adverb.

Examples.—A very beautiful flower. A long-neglected duty.

Obs. 4.—Specifying Adjectives—Possessive or Numeral—may be limited by other Adjectives.

EXAMPLES .-- 1. "He heard the KING's command,

- 2. And saw that writing's truth."
- 3. We gave two hundred dollars.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

REM.—As things are equal or unequal, similar or dissimilar, we have words indicating those differences.

NOTE 2.—Care should be exercised in the choice of appropriate words to indicate Comparison.

1. Comparison of Equality.

Obs. 1.—Two or more things, similar in any given quality, are compared by the use of the word As, placed before the latter term.

EXAMPLES.-1. John is as tall as James.

2. Warner is not so fair as Arthur.

Obs. 2.—The former term of the Comparison of Equality may be preceded by As or So, and sometimes by Such. (See Examples above.)

As is used in Affirmative Sentences.

So is used in Negative Sentences. (See Examples above.)

2. Comparison of Inequality.

Note 3.—In Comparisons of Inequality, when but two things are compared, the former term requires an Adjective or an Adverb of the *Comparative* Degree.

EXAMPLES.-1. "They are stronger than lions."-Taylor.

2. "Their instinct is MORE PERFECT than that of man."

EXCEPTION.—Some good writers employ the Superlative.

EXAMPLE .- "The largest boat of the two was cut loose." - Couper.

Obs. 1.—The second term of Comparison of Inequality is commonly introduced by the word *Than*. (See Examples above.)

Obs. 2.—When the second term is a Substantive Word, Than is a Preposition.

EXAMPLE.-" Than whom, Satan except, none higher sat."-Millon.

Obs. 3.—When the second term is a Sentence, *Than* is commonly a Relative Pronoun or a Conjunction.

Examples.-1. "He has more than heart could wish."

2. "And there are LOVELIER flowers, I ween, Than e'er in Eastern lands were seen."

(For other Observations on Than, see "Conjunctions.")

Obs. 4.—The second term of a comparison may be suppressed when the sense is not thereby obscured.

EXAMPLES .-- 1. "We both have fed as well."

2. "I have known deeper wrongs."

But,

Obs. 5.—When the second term is given it must correspond in construction with the first.

Incorrect.-" The study of Greek is more interesting than German."

Corrected.—The study of Greek is more interesting than the study of German—than that of German.

Note 4.—Adjectives of the Superlative Degree are used when more than two things are compared.

EXAMPLES.—1. "The richest treasure mortal times afford is spotless reputation."

2. "Thou art the ruins of the noblest man that ever lived."

Note 5.—Comparative and Superlative Adjectives require different constructions.

Obs. 1.—The Comparative Degree requires the former term to be excluded from the latter.

EXAMPLE.—Iron is more valuable than all other metals.

REM.—In this Example "Iron" is put as one term of Compari-12* son, and "all other metals" as the other term—two things are compared. Hence, the Comparative form.

Obs. 2.—The Superlative Degree requires the former term to be included in the latter.

EXAMPLE.—Iron is the most valuable of all the metals

REM.—Here, "all the metals" are taken severally. "Iron" is taken from the list, and put in comparison with the many others—more than two things are compared. Hence, the use of the Superlative form.

Note 6.—Some Adjectives can not be compared.

EXAMPLE.—John's hoop is much more circular than mine.

Corrected.-John's hoop is much more nearly circular than mine.

NOTE 7.—Double Comparatives and Superlatives are improper.

EXAMPLE.—In the calmest and most stillest night.

OBS.—But Lesser is often used by good writers.

EXAMPLE.—"The lesser co-efficient."—Davies' Algebra.

REM.—The Comparison of Adjectives is not commonly absolute, but relative. Thus, in saying, This is the sweetest apple, I merely say that this apple possesses a higher degree of the quality than all other apples with which it is compared.

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERROBS.

- 1. John is not as tall as James.
- 2. William is so tall as his father.
- 3. The magnolia is more beautiful as the althea.
- 4. William's ball is rounder than mine.
- 5. Eve was the fairest of all her daughters.
- 6. Eve was the fairest of all other women.
- 7. Eve was fairer than all her other daughters.
- 8. Nellie is the most loveliest of the girls.
- 9. "Of all other pupils in this school, Arthur is the best speaker."
- 10. There is no science so practical and so useful as Chemistry.
- 11. The occupation of the teacher is more important than the lawyer.
- 12. The cultivation of the heart is no less obligatory than the intellect.

SPECIFYING ADJECTIVES.

- Note 8.—Specifying Adjectives should be so used as clearly to signify the real intention of the speaker or writer.
- REM. 1.—The peculiar province of Specifying Adjectives is to indicate the *individuality* of beings or things. Hence,
- Obs. 1.—Specifying Adjectives should be used before Nouns taken in a restricted sense.
 - EXAMPLES.—1. " The MAN of wealth and pride
 - Takes up a space that many poor supplied."
 - 2. "He has betrayed the confidence of his friends."
 - 8. " The truth of that proposition is self-evident."
 - REM. 2.—But Nouns may be restricted by the use of Phrases.
 - Examples.-1. "Love of virtue is exhibited in deeds of charity."
 - 2. "APPLICATION to studies secures excellence in scholarship."
- Obs. 2.—Specifying Adjectives should not be used before Nouns taken in a general sense.
 - EXAMPLES.-1. "Man needs but little here below."
 - 2. " Confidence is a plant of slow growth."
- One. 3.—Specifying Adjectives should not be used before Proper Nouns.
 - EXAMPLES.—Jackson was the more skillful general;
 Webster, the greater statesman.
- REM. 3.—Proper Nouns are rendered Common by the use of Specifying Adjectives.
 - EXAMPLE.—Lincoln is the Washington of the nineteenth century.
- Note 9.—A Specifying Adjective should be repeated when its omission would occasion ambiguity or obscurity.
- Obs. 1.—We properly repeat the Specifying Adjective before two or more Nouns specifically distinct.
 - EXAMPLES.—1. Man knows neither the day nor the hour of his departure.
 - 2. The North and the South Lines are parallel.
- Obs. 2.—We repeat the Specifying Adjective when two or more Nouns are joined in the same construction and taken severally—especially if a part of the Nouns are suppressed.

EXAMPLES.-1. We have sold the black, the bay, and the white horse.

- 2. " The vain, the wealthy, and the proud,
- In folly's maze advance."

 8. The first, the third, and the fifth child were sons.

Note 10.—Specifying Adjectives should not be repeated before different Qualifying Adjectives used to describe the same thing, or before different Nouns indicating the same person or thing.

Examples.-1. " The North and South Line is accurately drawn."

2. Headley was a better orator than historian.

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERBORS.

- 1. Oldest pupil in this class is not wisest.
- 2. The proper study of the mankind is the man.
- 3. The North and South lines run east and west.
- 4. The past and present tense of that verb do not differ in form.
- 5. The North and the South lines marked on the map are called meridians.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

Note 11.—In the use of Adjectives that imply Number, such should be employed as agree in Number with their Nouns.

EXAMPLES.-A book-one book-three books.

This book-that book-some books.

Obs.—But a Noun having two or more Adjectives differing in Number, may agree in Number with the one placed next it.

EXAMPLE.—" Full many a GEM of purest ray serene."

NOTE 12.—When the Adjective is necessarily Singular or Plural, its Noun should agree with it in Number.

EXAMPLES .-- 1. "The field is two miles long and one mile broad."

 These hands let useful skill forsake— This voice in silence die."

Obs.—Exception.—A few Nouns are used technically or figuratively in the Singular Number, with Plural Adjectives.

Examples.—1. A hundred head of cattle. 2. Fifty sail of the line.

- 8. Surveyors use a four rod chain.
- 4. Carpenters use a ten foot pole.

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

- 1. Mary has not been at home this six months.
- 2. The Ridge road is three rod wider than the Braddock's Bay road.
- 3. The surveyor's chain is four rod long.
- 4. Hence it is called a four rods chain.
- 5. William exchanged three pair of rabbits for ten dozen of eggs.

Possessive Specifying Adjectives.

Rule 8.—A Noun or a Pronoun in the Possessive Case is used Adjectively.

Examples.—1. Webster's Dictionary. 2. Our neighbor.

3. The peddler deals in boys' caps and children's shoes.

EXCEPTION.—Nouns and Pronouns in the Possessive form are sometimes used Substantively, and are then in the Subjective, in the Objective, or in the Independent Case.

EXAMPLES.

Subjective.... 1. "And they both beat alike—only, mink was the quickest."

Objective.....2. "He is a friend of mine, and lives next door to Smith's."

Independent .. 3. "THINE is the kingdom."

Obs. 1.—The sign of the Possessive Case is not always annexed to the name of the Possessor.

1. It may be transferred to an attribute following the name of the Possessor.

EXAMPLES.—1. The Pope of Rome's legate.

- "Whether it be owing to the Author of nature's acting upon us every moment."—Bp. Butler.
- 2. When two or more Possessives, immediately following each other, are alike applicable to the same word, it is attached only to the last.

Examples.-1. George, James, and William's father.

- 2. A. S. Barnes and Co.'s publications.
- Obs. 2.—But the sign of the Possessive should be repeated when one Possessive is used to specify another.

EXAMPLE.—Gould's Adams' Latin Grammar.

Obs. 3.—The sign of the Possessive should be repeated when the Possessives refer to different persons.

Examples .- "Heroes' and Heroines' shouts confusedly rise."

NOTE 1.—Possessive Adjectives describe Nouns and Pronouns, by indicating possession, fitness, origin, condition, etc., etc.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. Boys' caps...... Boys' " denotes the size of the caps.
- 2. Webster's Dictionary..... "Webster's" denotes the origin.
- "Heaven's immortal Spring shall yet arrive, And man's majestic beauty bloom again,

Bright through the eternal year of Love's majestic reign."

Obs. 4.—A Noun or a Pronoun in the Possessive Case is often equivalent to an Adjective Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

1.	The people's	will	.The	will of	the people.
----	--------------	------	------	---------	-------------

- 2. Webster's Dictionary...... A Dictionary written by Webster.
- 4. "He heard the king's command...... The command of the king.
- 5. And saw that writing's truth."..... The truth of that writing.

OBS. 5.—But they are not always equivalent.

EXAMPLES.—1. The love of virtue......is not virtue's love.

2. The desire of leisure.....is not leisure's desire.

Hence,

Note 2.—Possessive Specifying Adjectives and Adjective Phrases should not be substituted the one for the other when they are not fully equivalent.*

(See Examples above.)

- 8. Webster's last speech...... The last speech of Webster.
- 2. When the Object of the Prepositional Phrase constitutes also the Logical Object of an action, state, feeling, etc., implied in the Substantive limited, the Phrase and the corresponding Possessive Adjective are not equivalent, and, consequently, can not be interchanged. Thus,

Correct .- "The DOCTRINE of Divine Sovereignty."

Incorrect.-Divine Sovereignty's DOCTRINE.

. 8. When the Object of the Prepositional Phrase may be the Logical Subject

^{*} The laws of interchange of Possessive Adjectives and their kindred Adjective Phrases are as follows:

When the Object of the Prepositional Phrase constitutes the Agent of an
action, state, feeling, etc., implied in the Substantive limited, the Phrase and
the corresponding Possessive Adjective are equivalent, and, therefore, interchangeable. Thus.

OBS. 6.—Adjectives derived from Nouns and Pronouns in the Possessive Case, often retain their Substantive character, and may be qualified by other Adjectives.

Example.—"He saw that writing's truth." "That" specifies "writing." He saw the truth of that writing.

REM.—This observation is also applicable to other Adjectives derived from Nouns, and to Numeral Adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—1. "A cast IRON hinge." "Cast" qualifies "iron;" and "iron" is an Adjective.

2. Two HUNDRED dollars. "Two" specifies "hundred;" and "hundred," thus modified, limits "dollars."

Obs. 7.—A word in the Possessive form is often used to specify a Phrase.

Examples.-1. "Upon Mr. Talbot's being made Lord Chancellor."

2. "From our being born into the present world."

OBS. 8.—In constructions like the above, the Possessive sign should not be omitted.

Correct Construction.—"All presumption of DEATH's being the destruction of living beings, must go upon the supposition that they are compounded,"

Incorrect Construction.—1. "Nor is there so much as any appearance of our LIMBS being endued with a power of moving," etc.—Bp. Buller.

2. "A fair wind is the cause of a vessel sailing."

REM.—In the last example, the author intended to say that wind is the cause of an act—an act expressed by the word "sailing."

But he makes himself say that wind is the cause of a thing—a thing named by the word "vessel."

Corrected .- Wind is the cause of a vessel's sailing.

Obs. 9.—Possessive Adjectives are sometimes qualified by Sentences introduced by Relative Pronouns and by Phrases.

"The love of God shall make their bliss secure."

REM.—This may mean God's love to them or their love to God.

If we intend the former, the ambiguity may be removed by the Phrase to them, placed after the word "God;" or, if the latter, by the word their in place of the word "the," Thus,

- 1. The love of God to them shall make their bliss secure.
- 2. Their love of God shall make their bliss secure.



or the Logical Object of the action, state, etc., implied in, the Substantive limited, the use of the Phrase generally occasions ambiguity, and is inadmissible without the addition of some other Element. Thus,

- Examples.-1. "How various His employments whom the world calls idle!"
 - 2. "I have spoken of HIS eminence as a judge."
 - 3. "Heaven be their resource who have no other but the charity of the world."

REM.—It is the Substantive Element in the Possessive Adjective that is thus limited by the Auxiliary Sentence. Thus, "his" is equivalent to "of him;" and "him" is limited by the Sentence "whom the world calls idle."

Position of the Possessive.

Obs. 10.—When the Possessive is used Adjectively, it is placed before the Noun or the Pronoun which it specifies.

EXAMPLES .-- 1. The WIDOW'S mite.

2. The CULPRIT's confession.

Obs. 11.—Like other Specifying Adjectives, it precedes Qualifying Adjectives belonging to the same Noun or Pronoun.

Examples.-1. "The BROOK's bright wave."

2. "The WIND's low sigh."

Obs. 12.—Possessive Adjectives, in addition to their primary office, sometimes introduce Auxiliary Sentences.

EXAMPLE.—"All are but parts of one stupendous whole,

Whose body Nature is, and God the soul."—Pope.

REM.—In this Sentence, "whose" is an Adjunct of "body," and it is used also to introduce the Adjunct Sentence, "Whose body Nature is."

Obs. 13.—The Possessive Adjective often denotes the agent of an act expressed by a Participle.

EXAMPLES.—1. "I have an engagement which prevents my staying longer with you."

2. "I allude to your inviting me to your forests."-Pops.

Who invited me?—you.

This observation also applies to Substantives.

EXAMPLE.—The boy's mistake. Who mistook !- the boy.

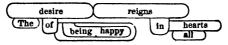
ADJECTIVES IN PREDICATE.

NOTE 3.—An Adjective, like a Participle, may be used in Predicate with a Verb, when the Verb requires its aid to make the assertion.

Examples.-1. "His palsied hand waxed strong."

- 2. "Canst thou grow sad as earth grows bright?"
- 3. Vanity often renders man contemptible.
- 4. Virtue always makes man happy.
- Obs. 1.—Many English Verbs contain the signification of such Adjectives in themselves. Thus.
 - "Waxed strong"..... has its equivalent, strengthened.
 - "Grows bright"..... " " brightens.
 - "Makes happy"..... " " happifies.
- Obs. 2.—But not all Predicate Adjectives have their equivalent Verbs. Thus, for the Predicate "renders contemptible," we have not the Verb. contemptibleize.
- Obs. 3.—Participles, like Verbs, sometimes require the use of Adjectives to complete the sense. Adjectives thus used are said to be "in Predicate."

Examples.-1. "The desire of being happy reigns in all hearts."

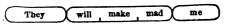


2. Her highest happiness consists in making others happy.

Obs. 4.—Adjectives may be in Predicate—

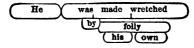
1. With Transitive Verbs-Active Voice.

Examples.-1. "They'll make me mad, they'll make me mad."



- 2. "The study of science tends to make us devout."
- 2. With Passive Verbs.

EXAMPLES.-1. "He was made wretched by his own folly,"



- 2. "The children were rendered miserable by the sins of the father."
- 3. With Neuter and other Intransitive Verbs.
- - 2. "Be not therefore grieved nor angry with yourselves."

4. With Verbs-Infinitive Mode.

Examples .- 1. "The study of science tends to make us devout."

2. "Dost thou well to be angry?"

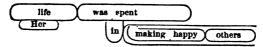


- 8. "I own it made my blood run cold."
- 5. With Participles as Adjectives.

EXAMPLE.—" Falling short of this, we can not succeed."

6. With Participles as Verbal Nouns.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Her life was spent in making others happy."

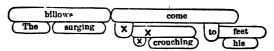


2. "Becoming angry at trifles is indicative of a weak mind."

Obs. 5.—This construction of the Adjective should be carefully distinguished from that in which it is used as a *representative* of an Adverbial Phrase.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Calcd entered every day early and returned late."

2. "The surging billows come crouching to his feet."



- "Early"..... is substituted for at an early hour.
- " Late".....
- " at a late hour.
- "Crouching" ... " in a crouching attitude.

Hence, "early," "late," and "crouching" are to be parsed-

- 1. As Adverbs—being used as representatives of Adverbial Phrases.
- But in the analysis of these Phrases, these words are to be parsed in their *individual* capacity, as Adjectives, qualifying their Substantives understood.

REM.—For Substantives in Predicate, see "Independent Case."

FORM.

Note 4.—Adjectives used in Predicate should not take the Adverbial form.

EXAMPLES.

Incorrect.-1. William feels badly to-night. 2. I feel sadly.

3. How beautifully it looks! 4. It appears strangely to me.

Corrected .- William feels bad to-night. I feel sad.

How beautiful it looks! It appears strange to me.

REM.—It will be noticed that the Adjective in Predicate does not modify the Verb. It describes the Subject with the aid of the Verb. Hence,

Obs. 1.—Adverbs are not used as a part of the Grammatical Predicate.

Obs. 2.—The Verb used in Predicate with an Adjective is sometimes suppressed.

Examples.—1. "No position, however exalled, could satisfy his ambition."

2. "A man may grow rich by seeming poor."

However exalted [it may be]. By seeming [to be] poor.

Position of Adjectives.

NOTE 5.—Adjectives should be so placed as to clearly represent the sense intended.

Obs. 3.—An Adjective Word is commonly placed before its Noun and after its Pronoun: an Adjective Phrase or Sentence after its Noun or Pronoun.

EXAMPLES.

Word .- 1. An influential man.

Phrase .- 2. A man of influence.

Sentence.-3. A man who possesses influence.

Obs. 4.—But when an Adjective Word is limited or modified by a Phrase, it is commonly placed after its Noun.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Seest thou a man diligent in his business."

2. "Truth, CRUSHED to earth, will rise again."

OBS. 5.—When the same word is qualified by two or more Adjectives, the one denoting the most definite quality should be placed next it; and, when one Adjective specifies and the other qualifies, the Qualifying Adjective is placed next the Noun.

Examples.-1. An industrious young man.

2. A large sweet apple.

3. "Sound the LOUD timbrel o'er Egypt's DARK sea."

Note 6.—An Adjective in Predicate is placed immediately after its Verb or Participle.

Examples .- 1. "Which maker glad the heart of man."

- 2. "Canst thou GROW sad as earth GROWs bright ?"
- 8. "His palsied hand WAXED strong,"
- 4. "And the eyes of the sleepers WAXED deadly and chill."
- 5. "How various his employments whom the world CALLS idle ?"

Obs. 1.—Exception 1.—When the Verb is Transitive, its Object is sometimes—not always—placed between it and the Adjective in Predicate.

- Examples .- 1. "Vanity often renders man contemptible."
 - 2. "Winter MAKETH the light heart sad."
- Obs. 2.—Exception 2.—For the sake of euphony, for emphasis, or for rhythm, the Adjective is sometimes placed before the Verb.
 - Examples.-1. "Hard is my fate, cried the heart-broken stranger."
 - 2. "Bloodless ARE these limbs, and cold."

Obs. 3.—This construction should be carefully distinguished from that in which the Adjective qualifies the Object of the Verb.

EXAMPLE.—" But we left HIM alone with his glory."

EXERCISES IN REVIEW.

PAGE

266.—What is an Adjunct?

What may be the forms of Adjuncts?

1. "A man who has talents, will succeed in business."

Condense this by replacing the Sentence Adjunct by a Phrase.

Replace the Phrase by an equivalent Word.

267.—Are all Adjunct Words, Phrases, and Sentences interchange-

What Elements of Sentences may be affected by Adjuncts?

268.—How are Adjuncts of Substantives to be parsed?

How are Logical Adjuncts commonly construed?

270.—Repeat Rule 7.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

271.—In what distinct methods do Adjectives describe Substantives?

Is a Word used Adjectively in one Sentence, always an Adjective?

Wherein do Adjectives commonly differ in form from Substantives of similar signification? PAGE

272.—Repeat Note 1.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

What Adjectives are commonly used in Comparisons of Equality?

What Word introduces the second term of the Comparison? Supply the proper Words omitted in the following Sentences:

- 2. "Anna is-tall as Clarissa."
- 3. "Rachel is not-tall as Mary."

Repeat Note 2.—Make Sentences to illustrate Obs.

273.—What Word introduces the second term of a Comparison of Inequality?

4. "Delia is taller-Isabella, but not fairer-Helen."

Supply the proper Words in the above Sentence. Repeat Note 4.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

Correct the following Sentences, and give proper authority for each criticism.

See Note 5, and Observations.

- 5. "Shakspeare is more faithful to the true language of Nature than any writer."—Blair.
- "Cibber grants it to be a better poem of its kind than ever was written."—Pone.
- "The Christian religion gives a more lovely character of God than any religion ever did."—Murray.
- 8. "Of all other nations, ours has the best form of government. It is, of all others, that which most moves us."—Sheridan.

275.—Repeat Note 7.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

By Notes 8, 9, or by the Observations.

- 9. "Northern Spy is fine specimen of an apple."
- 10. "Lawrence is abler mathematician than a linguist,"
- 11. "The highest title in the State is that of the Governor."
- 12. "Organic chemistry treats of the animal and vegetable kingdom."
- 18. "The north and south poles are indicated on the map."
- 14. "Mary, widow of the late Col. Clark, and the mother of the Governor, resides with us."
- 15. "Substitutes have three Persons; the First, Second, and the Third."—Pierce's Grammar.
- 16. "In some cases we can use either the Nominative or Accusative, promiscuously."—Adams' Latin Grammar.
- 17. "I doubt his capacity to teach either the French or English languages."

PAGE

- "The passive and neuter verbs I shall reserve for some future consideration."—Ingereol's Grammar.
- 19. " E has a long and short sound."-Bicknell's Grammar.
- "The perfect participle and imperfect tense ought not to be confounded."—Murray.

276.-By Note 10.

- 21. "There is, however, another, and a more limited sense."
- 22. "Novelty produces in the mind a vivid and an agreeable emotion."—Blair.
- "Jewell, the poet and the professor of English literature, has criticised it."

By Note 11.

- 24. "I have not been in London this five years."
- 25. "If I had not left off troubling you about those kind of things."
- 26. "They are these kind of gods which Horace mentions."
- 27. "Many things are not that which they appear to be."

By Note 12.

- 28. "The wall is ten foot high."-Harrison's Grammar.
- 29. "A close prisoner, in a room twenty foot square."-Locks.
- 30. "These verses consist of two sort of rhymes."-Formey.
- 31, "'Tis for a thousand pound,"-Cowper.

277.—Repeat Rule 8.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

Correct the following errors by Obs. 1, 2, 3, 4.

- 82. "I have neither John nor Eliza's books."-Nixon.
- 83. "James relieves neither the boy nor the girl's distress,"
- 84. "Which, for distinction sake, I shall put down severally."
- 35. "King James translators merely revised former translations."

243.—Repeat Note 1.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

244.—Repeat Note 2.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

Correct the following errors by Obs. 6, 7, 8.

- "The General in the army's name, published a declaration."— Hume.
- 87. "The bill passed the Lord's house, but failed in the Commons."
- "It is curious enough that this sentence of the Bishop is, itself, ungrammatical."—Cobbett's Grammar.
- 39. "We should presently be sensible of the melody suffering."
- 40. "This depends on their being more or less emphatic, and on the vowel-sound being long or short."
- 41. "Whose principles forbid them taking part in the administration of the government."—Liberator.

- 247.—Repeat Note 3.—Make Sentences to illustrate.
- 248.—Repeat Note 4.—Make Sentences to illustrate.

 Correct the following errors:
 - "The group of little misses appeared most lovely and beautifully."
 - 43. "Heaven opened widely her everlasting gates."
 - 44. "The poor girl feels very badly about it."-Hawley.
 - 45. "The sight appeared terribly to me."
 - 46. "Did not Lois look most beautifully at the lecture?"

ADVERBS.

RULE 9.—Adverbs belong to Verbs, to Adjectives, and to other Adverbs which they modify.

Obs. 1.—An Adverb may consist of a Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

Word .- 1. I shall go soon.

Phrase.-2. I shall go in a short time.

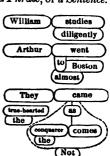
Sentense.—8. I shall go ere day departs.



OBS. 2.—An Adverb may modify a Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. William STUDIES diligently.
- "Diligently" modifies a Word.
 - 2. Arthur went almost to Boston.
- "Almost" modifies a Phrase.
 - 3. "Not as the conqueror comes, They, the true-hearted, came."
- " Not" modifies a Sentence.





ADVERBIAL WORDS.

NOTE 1.—In the use of Adverbs, that form should be adopted which is in accordance with the best authority.

Obs. 1.—Most Adverbs are derivative words, and are generally formed by adding ly (formerly written lie—a contraction of like) to its Primitive.

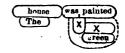
EXAMPLES.-1. A just man will deal justly.

2. A foolish man will act foolishly.

Obs. 2.—When an Adjective supplies the place of an Adverb, by representation, the Adjective form should be retained.

EXAMPLES.

- 1. The house was painted green.
- 2. Open thy mouth wide.



tasted sweet

orange

The

Expanded .- 1. The house was painted with green point.

9. Open thy mouth to a wide extent.

"Green" and "wide" are Adverbs by representation.

Obs. 3.—This construction should be carefully distinguished from that of Adjectives in Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

Correct .- 1. The orange tasted sweet.

2. Velvet feels smooth.

8. Some deemed him wondrous wise.

4. The grass looks green.

Incorrect .- 1. The orange tasted sweetly.

- 2. Velvet feels smoothly.
- 8. Some deemed him wondrous wisely.
- 4. The grass looks greenly.

Ons. 4.—The words which Adverbs properly modify are sometimes suppressed.

EXAMPLE.—"Thou canst but add one bitter woe
To those [] already there."—Which are already there.

Obs. 5.—Adverbs sometimes supply the place of Verbs which they modify.

Examples.-1. "Back to thy punishment, false fugitive."-Go back.

2. "I'll away to the pleasant land."—I'll go away.

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Ons. 6.—Many words, commonly used as Adverbs, often take the place of Nouns, and become *Pro*nouns.

EXAMPLES .-- 1. Till then-for till that time.

- 2. From thence-for from that place.
- 3. And I have made a pilgrimage from far. Hosmer.
- Obs. 7.—Participles become Adverbs whenever they indicate the manner of an action or modify a quality.

EXAMPLES.-1. "'Tis strange, 'tis passing strange."

- 2. "A virtuous household, but exceeding poor."
- 3. "Beulah's cheeks grew burning red."

OBS. 8.—But most Participial Adverbs have the suffix ly added.

Examples.-1. "He spoke feelingly on that subject."

2. "She conducted herself most lovingly throughout."

Obs. 9.—Or they become Adverbs by representation.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Now it mounts the wave,
And rises, threatening, to the frowning sky."

"The surging billows and the gamboling storms Come, crouching, to his feet."

"Come" in a "crouching" attitude. (See Obs. 2, above, also p. 22.)

Obs. 10.—A few words, commonly employed as Prepositions, are sometimes used Adverbially.

Examples.-1. "Thou didst look down upon the naked earth."

And may, at last, my weary age Find out the peaceful hermitage."

3. "Master Sir Philip, you may come in."

NEGATIVE ADVERBS.

NOTE 2.—But one Negative Word or Particle should be used in asserting a negative proposition. For,

Obs. 1.—Two Negatives applied to the same act or quality generally make it affirmative.

Examples .- 1. " Not without cause."

2. "Such occurrences are not unfrequent."

Obs. 2.—Negative Prefixes in derivative words have the same force as Negative Adverbs.

Examples.-1. "He was not unmindful of his obligations."

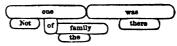
2. "Such expressions are not inelegant."

REM.—Such expressions have not always the full force of the corresponding affirmative assertions, but serve to negative the negative assertion.

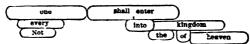
Obs. 3.—(a) Negative Adverbs are used primarily to modify Verbs.

EXAMPLES.-1. "They wept Nor."-"Nor" modifies "wept."

- (b) To modify Adjectives.
 - 2. Not one of the family was there.

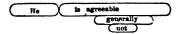


Nor every one that saith unto me, 'Lord! Lord!' shall enter into the kingdom of heaven."



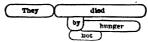
(c) To modify other Adverbs-Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

Word .- 4. He is NOT generally agreeable.



Phrase.—5. "They died nor by hunger, or lingering decay,

The steel of the white man hath swept them away."



Sentence.—6. "Nor as the conqueror comes,*

They, the true-hearted, came."
(See Diagram, p. 287.)

^{*} The influence of the Negatives, not, neither, etc., is often exerted on Noune, Phrases, and whole Sentences. And, generally, when a Negative occurs in connection with other Adjuncts, the influence of the Negative reaches the whole proposition, including the other Adjuncts. Thus, in Example 6, "not" modifies the phrase, "by hunger or lingering decay." And in Example 7, "not" negatives the sentence "as the conqueror comes."

Let the word "not," in sentences 6 and 7, be parsed by a devotee of those systems of grammar that ignore the etymological offices of Phrases and of Sentences. Will he not also "ignore" common sense? Does "not" modify "died" Then they are still living!

OBS. 4.—The responsive words yes, yea, no, nay, are independent in construction.

Position of Adverbs.

- Note 3.—The Position of Adverbs should be such as most clearly to convey the sense intended.
- OBS. 1.—Adverbs which modify Verbs generally precede a single Verb in Predicate.
 - Examples.--1. "Man naturally seeks his own happiness."
 - 2. "Then, when I am thy captive, TALK of chains."
- Obs. 2.—When the Predicate consists of more than one word, the Adverb is commonly placed after the first word in Predicate.
 - Examples.—1. "We can not honor our country with too deep a reverence."
 - 2. "I have always been an admirer of happy human faces."
 - 8. "I WILL never LEAVE thee nor FORSAKE thee."
- Obs. 3.—Adverbs modifying Adjectives are placed before their Adjectives.
 - Examples .-- 1. "The very BICH man can never be truly HAPPY."
 - 2. "The selfish man can never be truly POLITE."

EXCEPTION.—The word enough, used Adverbially, is commonly placed after its Adjective; as, "It is good enough for me."

- Obs. 4.—Adverbs are placed before other Adverbs which they modify.
 - EXAMPLES.--1. "How LIGHTLY mounts the muse's wing."
 - 2. " Too Low they build, who build beneath the stars."
 - 8. "Ralph's mill is driven partly by water and partly by STEAM."
 - 4. "They died not by hunger nor lingering decay."
 - 5. "Some work only for Pleasure."
- Obs. 5.—Adverbial Phrases are commonly placed after the words which they modify.
 - EXAMPLES .-- 1. "There CAME to the beach a poor exile of Erin."
 - 2. "Time slept on flowers and LENT his glass to Hope."
- OBS. 6.—Adverbial Sentences are commonly placed after the words which they modify.
 - EXAMPLES.—1. "The firmament grows brighter with every golden grain,

 As handful after handful falls on the azure plain."
 - 2. "And I am GLAD that he has lived thus long."

REM.—To the above rules for the Position of Adverbial Elements there are numerous exceptions. No specific rules can be given which will always be applicable. The judgment and taste of the writer are required to decide as to the Position of all the Elements of Sentences.

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

- 1. "A Christian should always act benevolent."
- 2. The fields look greenly.
- 3. Some of the pupils looked sadly, and others looked gladly.
- 4. Never bestow your favors grudging.
- 5. Every one that runs a race shall not win the prize.
- 6. Every one that does not run a race shall win the prize.
- 7. I have been always a lover of children.
- 8. Some only work for pleasure. (So they never play for pleasure?)
- 9. That hat was expressly made for me.
- 10. "The comparative degree can only be used in reference to two objects."

 —Brown's Grammar, p. 140.
 - 11. "Most men dream, but all do not."-Beattee's Mor., Sec. 72.
 - 12. "But every man is not called James."-Buchanan's Grammar, p. 15.
 - 13. "I do not think I can tell."-Many Pupils.
 - 14. "Some people only work for pleasure."
 - 15. "I have not seen none of your books."
 - 16. "Ernest feels happily to-night."
 - 17. "I never will disturb my quiet with the affairs of state."
 - 18. The day was pleasant very, and the wind fair exceedingly.

SPECIAL CAUTIONS.

(1) In forming Complex Sentences, be careful to apply the Negative to the right Verb.

EXAMPLES.

Incorrect .- I do not think I can tell.

Corrected .- I think I can not tell.

(2) Do not use an Adjective Word for an Adverb.

EXAMPLES.

Incorrect.—Since her late sickness she does not hear good.

Corrected.—Since her late sickness she does not hear well.

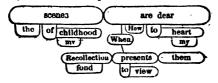
(3) Avoid the use of the Adjective "such" for the Adverb "so.

EXAMPLE.

Incorrect.—I have not seen such a good boy in this school. Corrected.—I have not seen so good a boy.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

"How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood, When fond Recollection presents them to view."



ANALYSIS.

PRINCIPAL ELE- The Subject Scenes Intransitive MENTS The Predicate Are dear. Sentence.					
	Of the Subject	§ "The"			
Adjuncts <	Of the Predicate	"How"			
Parsed by the Chart.—Model,					

'Scenes".....An Element in the Sentence-Principal Part-

RULE 1.)

Subject—Word—Noun—Common—Third Person
— Plural Number—Subjective Case. (Repeat

- "Of my child-hood" An Element in the Sentence—Adjunct—Phrase—Adjuct—Phrase—Rule 7.)
- "When fond Recollection presents them to view" An Element in the Principal Sentence—Adjunct Sentence Adverbial Simple Transitive. (Repeat Rule 9.)
- REM. 1.—For the analysis of the Phrases, "To my heart," and "Of my childhood," see p. 185.
- REM. 2.—The Auxiliary Sentence, "When fond Recollection presents them to view," may now be analyzed by the above formula, as a distinct Sentence.

PARTICIPLES.

RULE 10.—A Participle has the same construction as the "part of speech" for which it is used.

REM.—Participles may be used in every "Part of Speech." (See p. 124.)

I. PARTICIPLES USED AS NOUNS.

Note 1.—A Participle used as a Noun may be-

- 1. The Subject of a Sentence.
- EXAMPLES.-1. "The beginning of strife is as when one letteth out water."
 - 2. "The plowing of the wicked is sin."
 - "Taking a madman's sword to prevent his doing mischief, CAN NOT BE REGARDED as robbing him."



- 2. The Object of a Verb.
 - 4. "I DOUBTED his having been a soldier."
 - 5. "While you strive to BEAR being laughed at."
 - Taking a madman's sword to prevent his doing mischief can not be regarded as robbing him."

- 3. The Object of a Preposition.
 - 7. "In the beginning."
 - "Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying of our wants: Riches upon Enjoxing our superfluities." —Addison.
 - "Taking a madman's sword to prevent his doing mischief, can not be regarded as robbing him."
- Note 2.—A Participle used as a *Noun*, *i. e.*, as the name of an action, retains its Verbal character, and may be followed by an Object when it is the leader of a Participial Phrase.
 - EXAMPLES.-1. "They could not avoid giving offence.
 - "Its excesses may be restrained without DESTROYING its existence."
 - 8. RECEIVING goods, known to be stolen, is a criminal offence.
 - 4. We have succeeded in MAKING A beginning.*
- OBS.—A Participle, being the Leader of a Participial Phrase, often has its Subject suppressed.

REM.—In Sentence 1, above, "they" is the implied agent of the action expressed by "giving."

In Sentences 2 and 3, the agents of "destroying" and of "receiving" are neither expressed nor implied.

In Sentence 4, "we" is the implied Subject of "making."

Note 3.—The agent of an action expressed by a Participle is sometimes expressed, and should be in the Possessive Form.

- EXAMPLES.-1. "We have heard of his going to the Falls."
 - 2. "I doubted his having been a soldier."
 - 8. "Mr. Burton objected to his son's Joining the army."

Note 4.—The sign of the Possessive Case of Nouns and Pronouns, used as the Logical Subjects of Participles, should not be omitted.

^{* &}quot;Giving offence" is a Substantive Phrase—Object of the Verb "avoid." "Giving" is the Leader of the Phrase. "Offence" is the Subsequent—Object of "giving."

In Sentence 4, "Making a beginning" is a Substantive Phrase—Object of the Preposition "in." "Making" is the Leader of the Participial Phrase; "beginning" is the Subsequent—Object of "making." (See also the preceding diagram.)

EXAMPLES.

Improper Construction .- 1. "A fair wind is the cause of a vessel sailing."

2. He opposed me going to college.

Corrected .- 1. A fair wind is the cause of a vessel's sailing.

2. He opposed my going to college.

OBS. 1.—The Logical Subject of a Participle may be in the Objective Case only as the Object of a Preposition.

EXAMPLES.-1. "The PLOWING of the wicked is sin."

2. "By the crowing of the cock, we knew that morning was, nigh."

REM.—" Cock" is the Object of the Preposition "of," and is therefore in the Objective Case. But it is also the Agent of the Action implied in the word "crowing;" and is, therefore, the Logical Subject of the Verbal Noun, "crowing."

Obs. 2.—Phrases thus used as Adjuncts of Participles are sometimes equivalent to Possessive Specifying Adjectives, and, therefore, are interchangeable.

EXAMPLES.-1. The crowing of the cock.-The cock's crowing.

We listened to the singing of the children."
 We listened to the children's singing.

OBS. 3.—The Definitive, the, should be placed before a Verbal Noun whose Logical Subject is the Object of the Preposition of.

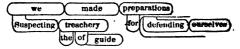
EXAMPLE.-" The PLOWING of the wicked is sin."

Obs. 4.—The Definitive, the, should not be placed before a Verbal Noun whose Logical Subject is in the Possessive Case.

EXAMPLE.—" You object to my plowing the garden so early."

NOTE 5.—A Participle used to introduce a *Participial Phrase*, has the same construction as the Phrase which it introduces.

1. "Suspecting the treachery of our guide, WE made PREPARATIONS for defending ourselves from any hostile attacks."



Here "suspecting" and "defending" are Participles, each used to, introduce a Participial Phrase; but

"Suspecting the treachery of our quide" shows a condition of " WE." Hence, an Adjective Phrase.

"Suspecting" describes "we." Adjective.

" Defending ourselves" is a Participial Phrase-Object of the Preposition "for." Hence, a Substantive Phrase. "Defending" is the name of

by expressing, incidentally, an an act, Object of the Preposiact of "we." Hence, a Verbal tion "for." Hence, a Verbal Noun.

2. Suspicious of the treachery of our guides, we made preparations for defence.

"Suspicious" describes "we," | "Defence" is a name, Object. by expressing a condition or state of the Preposition "for." Hence, of "we." Hence, an Adjective. | a Noun.

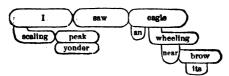
II. Participles used as Adjectives.

Note 6.—A Participle used as an Adjective belongs to a Noun or a Pronoun which it describes; and may be modified by Adverbs.

EXAMPLES .-- 1.

"Whose visages Do cream and mantle like a standing pond.

2. " Scaling yonder peak, I saw an EAGLE Wheeling near its brow."*



3. "We saw IT plunging 'mid the billowy strife, And dashing madly on to fearful doom."

OBS.—The Participle, used as an Element in an Independent Phrase, may be suppressed when the sense is not thereby rendered obscure.

^{* &}quot;Scaling yonder peak" is a Phrase-Adjunct of "I;" hence, Adjective. "Wheeling near its brow" is a Participial Phrase-Adjunct of "eagle;" hence, Adjective. "Near its brow" is a Prepositional Phrase-Adjunct of "wheeling;" hence, Advertial,

In Sentence, 3, "'Mid the billowy strife" is an Adjunct of "plunging." "Madly," and "on," and "to fearful doom," being Adjuncts of "dashing," are Adverbs.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Thus talking, hand [] in hand, alone they passed
 On to their blissful bower."—Hand being in hand,
 - "Now, man to man and steel to steel,
 A chieftain's vengeance thou shalt feel."
 Man being opposed to man.
- REM. 1.—It should be remarked, that such omissions of Participles occur only when they have Adjuncts.
- REM. 2.—In analyzing and parsing such Adjuncts, it is necessary to restore the Participles to which they belong. Thus, "in hand" is a Phrase—Adjunct of being, understood; hence, an Adverbial Phrase. "To man" is an Adjunct of being opposed, understood.

III. PARTICIPLES USED AS ADVERBS.

Note 7.—Participles used Adverbially, belong to Verbs, to Adjectives, or to Adverbs, which they modify.

EXAMPLE.—'Tis strange! 'tis Passing strange.

Obs.—Participles are seldom used Adverbially without the termination ly.

EXAMPLE.—"He spoke FEELINGLY on that subject."

IV. PARTICIPLES USED AS PREPOSITIONS.

Note 8.—A Participle used as a Preposition shows a relation of its object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

Example.—"He said nothing concerning his temporal affairs."

- Obs.—The young scholar often finds it difficult to determine whether a Participle is used as a Preposition or as an Adjective. His difficulties on this subject will vanish when he recollects that—
- 1. A Participle used as a Preposition does not relate to a Noun or to a Pronoun—it generally introduces an Adverbial Phrase.
- 2. A Participle used as an Adjective always relates to a Noun or to a Pronoun—it generally introduces an Adjective Phrase.

V. PARTICIPLES USED IN PREDICATE WITH VERBS.

Note 9.—A Participle used in Predicate asserts an act, being, or state, and may be modified by Adverbs.

EXAMPLE.—" We are anxiously expecting to hear from William."

NOTE 10.—In the use of Participles in Predicate, the proper modification should be used.

1. When an action is to be predicated of the Subject, i. e., when the Subject performs the act, the Active Participle should be used.

EXAMPLES .- 1. Henry is RECITING his lesson.

- 2. People are building the church.
- 2. When the Subject is to be represented as receiving the action, the Passive Participle should be used

EXAMPLES.-1. Henry's lesson is BEING RECITED.

2. The church is being built. (See pp. 212-13.)

Note 11.—The Participial Phrase should not be employed when the use of the Infinitive Phrase would be more elegant.

EXAMPLES.-1. "If the case stands thus, 'tis dangerous drinking."

Better.—If the case stands thus, 'tis dangerous to drink.

2. "It deserves remarking."-Harris's Hermes.

Better .- It deserves to be remarked.

3. "He refused complying with the regulations."

Better.—He refused to comply with the regulations.

Note 12.—The Participial Phrase should be used in preference to a Sentence, or any other more complicated construction, which would express the same idea.

EXAMPLES.

Sentence.—1. As I was scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle, which was wheeling near its brow.

Participial Phrase.—Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle wheeling near its brow.

REM.—These Sentences are both grammatically correct; but the latter gives the sentiment fully, and has the advantage of being more concise, and is therefore to be preferred.

OBS.—The Logical Subject of a Participle may be suppressed only when the construction is sufficiently clear without it.

EXAMPLES.

Incorrect.—1. "Having resigned his commission, the company was disbanded."

- Incorrect.—2. "Counting the women and the children, the company was ascertained to be too large for the accommodations."
 - Correct.—1. (a) He having resigned his commission, the company was disbanded, (See p. 209, Obs. 1.)
 - or (b) The captain having resigned his commission, the company was disbanded.
 - 2. (c) On counting the women and the children, the company was found to be too large for the accommodations.
 - or (d) The women and the children being counted, the company was found to be too large for the accommodations.
 - or (s) Counting the women and the children, we found that the company was too large for the accommodations.

EXERCISES IN REVIEW.

Let the errors in the following Sentences be corrected by a proper application of the Notes and Observations under Rule 9.

- "It requires no nicety of ear as in the distinguishing of tones, or measuring time."—Sheridan.
- 2. "He mentions Newton's writing of a commentary."
- "The cause of their salvation does not so much arise from their embracing of mercy, as from God's exercising of it."
- 4. "Those who accuse us of denying of it, belie us."-Bently.
- 5. "In the choice they had made of him for restoring of order."
- 6. "The Governor's veto was writing while the final vote was taking in the Senate."
 - 7. "To prevent it bursting out with open violence."-Robertson.
- 8. "This must prevent any regular proportion of time being settled."—Sheridan.
 - 9. "The compiler proposed publishing that part by itself."-Adams.
 - 10. "Artaxerxes could not refuse pardoning him."-Goldsmith.
 - 11. "They refused doing so."-Harris.
 - 13. " Entering the cars, the seats were found to be all occupied."

THE INFINITIVE VERB.

RULE 11.—A Verb in the Infinitive Mode is the Object of the Preposition to, expressed or understood.

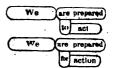
REM.—A Verb in the Infinitive Mode is commonly used as a Subsequent of an Infinitive Phrase. Hence, it is an Element, not in a Sentence, but in a Phrase.

Obs. 1.—In its office, the Infinitive Verb is always Substantive, generally expressing the name of an act, being, or state.

EXAMPLES,

We are prepared to act.

Equivalent.—We are prepared for action.



Obs. 2.—The Infinitive Verb is never used as a grammatical Predicate; hence, it has no grammatical Subject. But it is often the logical Predicate of a Noun or a Pronoun, which may be in the Subjective or in the Objective Case.

EXAMPLES.-1. We love to study.

2. We requested him to speak.

REM.—"We," the grammatical Subject of "love," is also the logical Subject of "study."

"Him," the grammatical Object of "requested," is the legical Subject of "speak."

NOTE 1.—The Preposition to is generally suppressed before Infinitive Verbs following the Verbs bid, but, dare, feel, hear, let, make, need, see, and sometimes behold, have, help, know, observe, perceive, and some others.

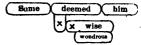
EXAMPLES.-1, "I plunged in and BADE him follow."

- 2. "He DARES not touch a hair of Catiline."
- 3. "LET me hear thy voice awake."
- 4. "Clara HELPED me work that problem,"
- 5. "I can not BUT suspect that she assisted Cora too.
- 6. "I would not have you go to-day."
- 7. "Necessity commands me name myself."

OBS. 3.—The Infinitive Verb, with its Preposition, is often suppressed.

Examples.

- 1. "Some deemed him wondrous wise."
 - "Intemperance makes a man [] a fool."

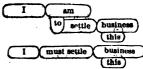


Obs. 4.—The Infinitive is sometimes elegantly used for other Modes.

EXAMPLES.

1. "I am to settle this business."Arthur.

Equivalent.—I must settle this business.



Obs. 5.—The Preposition to should not be replaced by the Conjunction and.

Incorrect.—Try and do as well as possible.

Corrected.—Try to do as well as possible.

THE INFINITIVE PHRASE.

Obs. 6.—The Infinitive Verb with its Preposition constitutes an Infinitive Phrase, and may be construed as a Substantive, an Adjective, or an Adverb.



- OBS. 7.—An Infinitive Phrase, used Substantively, may be-
 - (a) The Subject of a Sentence.
 - 1. "To be able to read well, is a valuable accomplishment."
 - (b) The Object of a Preposition.
 - 2. "We were ABOUT to retire."
 - 8. "Be so kind as to place that in diagram."
 - (c) A Logical Adjunct.

tures.

4. "It is our duty to make good use of our time."

REM.—In the opinion of most grammarians, the Verbs love, desire, wish, expect, and some others, take Infinitive Verbs after them as Objects. (See p. 242.)

- OBS. 8.—An Infinitive Phrase, used Adjectively, may be the Adjunct—
 - (a) Of the Subject of a Sentence.
 - 1. "A constant PURPOSE to excel marked his whole career."
 - (b) Of the Object of a Sentence.
 - 2. William has made EFFORTS to improve in speaking.
 - (c) Of the Object of a Phrase.
 - 3. "He arrived in TIME to give his vote."
 - (d) Of a Substantive in Predicate.
 - 4. That is the BUSINESS next to be done.

attend

lectures

- OBS. 9.—An Infinitive Phrase, used Adverbially, may be the Adjunct—
 - (a) Of a Verb in Predicate.
 - 1. Will you allow me to place this in diagram?
 - (b) Of an Adjective in Predicate.
 - 2. We are READY to depart.
 - (c) Of an Adverb.
 - 8. We were Too late to take the cars.
- Obs. 10.—The Infinitive, like other Phrases, is sometimes independent in construction.

EXAMPLE.—"And, to be plain with you, I think you more unreasonable than he."

OBS. 11.—The Infinitive Phrase often follows the Words as and than.

Examples.-1. "An object so high as to be invisible."

2. "He said nothing further than to give an apology for his vote."

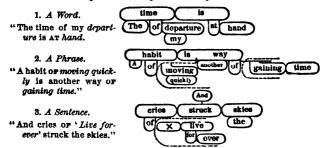
REM.—In the above and similar examples, as and than are to be regarded as Prepositions, having for their Objects the Infinitive Phrases following. In like manner it sometimes follows other Prepositions.

EXAMPLE.—We are about to recite. (See Obs. 7, above.)

PREPOSITIONS.

RULE 12.—A Preposition shows a relation of its Object to the word which its Phrase qualifies.

Obs. 1.—The Object of a Preposition may be-





- OBS. 2.—A Word, a Phrase, or a Sentence, being the Object of a Preposition, is, in its office, Substantive. (See "departure," "hand," "moving quickly," "gaining time," and "Live forever," in the previous Examples.)
- Obs. 3.—Pronouns which follow Prepositions as their Objects of relation should have the Objective form.
 - REM.—For Exceptions, see p. 179.
- Obs. 4.—Words commonly used as Adjectives or Adverbs, often become Objects of Prepositions, and are then properly parsed as Substantives, in the Objective Case.
 - EXAMPLES.-1. "He has faded from earth like a star from on high."
 - 2. John is a friend or mine.
 - 8. "As yet the trembling year is unconfirmed."
- Obs. 5.—The antecedent term of the relation expressed by a Preposition, is sometimes understood.
 - EXAMPLE.— "O refuge
 Meet for fainting pilgrims [] on this desert way."*
- OBS. 6.—Prepositions introducing Substantive and Independent Phrases, have no Antecedents.
 - EXAMPLES.-1. "As for me and my house, we will serve the Lord."
 - 2. "And, on the whole, the sight was very painful."-Tedd
 - 3. "O for a lodge in some vast wilderness."-Cowper.
 - Obs. 7.—The consequent term of relation may be—
 - A Word .- " He stood before the people."
 - A Phrase .- "Time, spent in receiving impertment visits."
 - A Sentence .- " And cries of 'Live forever' struck the skies." .
- Obs. 8.—The consequent term of relation—Object—is sometimes understood.

^{*}In the above and similar examples, the clipsis of the antecedent word need not be supplied in parsing, unless the sense plainty requires it. But the Parase may be parsed as qualifying the word which its Antecedent would qualify, if expressed.

[&]quot;Which flung its purple o'er his path to heaven."

Here the Phrase "to heaven" properly modifies leading, or a word of similar office. understood. But "leading," modified by this Phrase, would qualify "path." Hence, the Phrase "to heaven"—as a representative of the whole Phrase, "leading to heaven"—may be attached to "path."

Examples.-1. "And the waves are white below" []."

2. "These crowd around [] to ask him of his health."

PREPOSITIONS OMITTED.

REM.—Elegance or conciseness in style determines the omission, in speaking and writing, of many words not necessary to complete the sense, yet necessary to complete the grammatical construction. Perhaps no class of words are thus suppressed more frequently than Prepositions. Hence,

Note.—A Preposition may be omitted when the sense is not thereby obscured.

Obs. 9.—Prepositions should generally be omitted before Subsequents denoting *time*, value, direction, extent, or before Subsequents placed between Transitive Verbs and their Objects.

EXAMPLES.—1. I visited Rochester three times last week:—at three times, in last week.

- 2. I paid him one dollar for his knife: -with one dollar.
- William came home last night, having rode night and day the whole distance:—to his home, on last night—during night and day—throughout the whole distance.
- 4. "The wall is four feet high, and forty rods long:"-high to the extent of four feet-long to the distance of forty rods.
- 5. Mary gave [] me a rose:—Mary gave a rose to me.
- 6. I sold [] Mr. Shepard my wheat:—sold wheat to Shepard.
- William has gone from home to-day—he will come [] home to-morrow—to his home.

Obs. 10.—When two or more Subsequents, connected in construction, have the same Preposition in common, the Preposition should not be repeated.

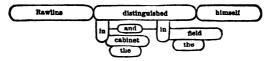
EXAMPLES.—We passed through Rochester and Syracuse and Utica, on our way to Albany and New York,

Obs. 11.—But when two or more *Phrases*, combined in construction, limit the same word, the Preposition should be repeated.



^{*} Many grammarians call these Prepositions Agreeps, without giving a proper explanation. They are Prepositions, having their Objects understood. But, as the Phrases of which they form parts are always used Adverbially, the Prepositions—as representatives of their Phrases—are Adverbs. Hence, when thus used, each Preposition performs a double office—Prepositional, as leader of the Phrase—Adverbial, as representative of the Phrase.

EXAMPLE.—General Rawlins distinguished himself in the cabinet and in the field.



Here, and connects Phrases.

REM.—Both good taste and accuracy of expression should decide when such suppression of Prepositions should be allowed.

Obs. 12.—Double Prepositions are sometimes allowed.

EXAMPLES.—1. " Out of every grove the voice of pleasure warbles."

2. "There can be no question as to which party must yield."

OBS. 13.—But two Prepositions must not be used (except for euphony), when one of them will fully express the sense intended.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Near to this dome is found a path so green:"—near this dome.

2. "Not for to hide it in a hedge:"-not to hide it.

OBS. 14.—Position.—The proper place for a Preposition is (as its name implies) before the Phrase it introduces,

EXAMPLES.—"In dread, in danger, and alone,
Famished and chilled through ways unknown."

OBS. 15.—But, by the poets, it is often placed after its Object.

EXAMPLE.—" From peak to peak, the rattling crags amone, Leaps the live thunder."

OBS. 16.—And sometimes in colloquial style.

EXAMPLE.—"You will have no mother or sister to go to."

REM.—This idiom is inelegant, and not to be recommended.

Obs. 17.—A Preposition commonly indicates the office of the Phrase which it introduces.

EXAMPLE.-See page 167.

OBS. 18.—Many words commonly used as Prepositions are sometimes employed, not as Elements of Phrases, but as Word-Elements in Sentences. These are commonly Adverbs.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Come on, my brave associates."

2. "Lift up thy voice like a trumpet."

8. "Down, down, the tempest plunges on the sea."

4. "And the mad waves rise up to buffet it."

Note 1.—Care should be exercised in the choice of Prepositions.

- Obs. 1.—The particular Preposition proper to introduce a given Phrase depends—
 - 1. Usually on the word which the Phrase is to qualify.
 - 2. Sometimes on the Object of the Phrase.

EXAMPLES.

Accommodate to.
Accord with.
Accuse of.
Acquainted with.
Ask of a person.
" for a thing.
Bestow upon.
Boast of.
Concur with, in.
Differ from.

Die by violence.

" of a disease.
Diminish from.
Dissent from.
Insist upon.
Made of a thing.

" bu a person

Made of a thing.

"by a person.

"in a place.

Abhorrence of.

Agreeable to.

Compliance with.
Conformable to.
Difficulty in, with.
Eager in, for.
Need of.
True to.
Value upon, of.
Worthy of.

Obs. 2.—When the second term of a comparison is expressed by a Phrase—

After a Superlative, the Preposition of is commonly used. After a Comparative, the Preposition than is commonly used.

EXAMPLES.—Grammar is the most interesting of all my studies.

Grammar is more interesting than all my other studies.

Obs. 3.—When the second term of a Comparison of Equality is a Noun or a Pronoun, the Preposition as is commonly used—sometimes like is used.

EXAMPLES.-1. "He hath died to redeem such a rebel as me."- Wesley.

2. "An hour LIKE this may well display the emptiness of human grandeur."

Obs. 4.—Some writers improperly substitute the words for and with for as.

Example.—"It implies government of the very same kind with that which a master exercises over his servants."—Bishop Butler.

Better .- Of the very same kind as that.

Obs. 5.—A Preposition and its Subsequent constitute a Phrase, generally constituting an Adjective or an Adverbial Adjunct.*

Scholars often find it difficult to determine the Antecedent term of a relation

^{*} In the analysis of a Sentence, a Phrase contained in it is to be parsed, first, as one distinct Element in the structure of its Sentence; then the Phrase is to be analyzed, and each of its distinct Elements pointed out. (See pp. 184-5.)

EXAMPLES.

Adjective Element.—1. "The King of Shadows loves a shining mark."

Adverbial Element.—2. "Time slept on flowers, and lent his glass to Hope."

CONJUNCTIONS.

RULE 13.—Conjunctions connect Words, Phrases, and Sentences, or introduce Sentences.

EXAMPLES.

Words....1. "In the beginning, God created the HEAVEN and the BARTH."

Phrases.... 2. "To give good gifts and to be benevolent, are often different things."

Sentences. 3. "Thou art perched aloft on the beetling crag, And the waves are white below."

Obs. 1.—Words connected by Conjunctions have a similar construction.

Examples.-1. "God created the heaven and the earth."

2. "Time slept on flowers, AND lent his glass to Hope."

3. "A great AND good man has fallen."

REM.—"Heaven" and "earth" are alike Objects of "created."
"Slept" and "lent" are Predicates of "Time." "Great" and
"good" describe "man."

OBS. 2.—But they have not necessarily similar modifications.

EXAMPLE.—" Every teacher has AND must have his own particular way of imparting knowledge."—McElligott.

REM.—"Has" and "must have" are Predicates of "teacher"—but they are not of the same Mode.

Obs. 3.—Phrases and Sentences used as Elements in the structure of a Principal Sentence, have a similar construction when connected by Conjunctions.

expressed by a Preposition—examples sometimes occur in which the relation of the Object of a Preposition seems to exist, not to any word, but to the whole Sentence. Generally, however, this question can be settled by accertaining which word is qualified by the Phrase introduced by a Preposition—that word is the Antecedent term of relation.

Example.—" A flood of glory bursts from all the skies."

REM.—Here the Phrase "of glory" specifies "flood;" hence, "flood" is the Antecedent term of the relative expressed by "of;" and the Phrase is Adjective.
"From all the skies" modifies "bursts;" hence, "bursts" is the Antecedent term; and the Phrase is Adverbial.

- EXAMPLES.-1. "He served his country in the cabinet and in the field."
 - 2. "To eat AND to sleep constitute the sum of his employments."
 - 8. "While I am his AND he is mine, I'm ever safe from ill."
- OBS. 4.—But Conjunctions may introduce Principal Sentences, without connecting them to any Word or Sentence in construction.
 - EXAMPLES .- 1. " And who says this ?"
 - 2. "That I have taken this old man's daughter is most true."
 - 3. "And I am glad that he has lived thus long."
- OBS. 5.—Conjunctions introducing Adjunct Sentences connect their Sentences to the Word modified by such Auxiliaries.
 - EXAMPLES .-- 1. " And, IF I sought,
 - Think'st thou no other could be brought ?"
 - 2. "As ye journey, sweetly sing."
 - "How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood, WHEN fond recollection presents them to view."

(See Diagram, p. 293.)

- Obs. 6.—But Auxiliary Substantive Sentences are simply introduced by Conjunctions.
 - EXAMPLES.-1. "THAT all men are created equal, is a self-evident truth."
 - 2. "He knew not that the chieflain lay Unconscious of his son."

(See Diagram, p. 248.)

- Ons. 7.—The *Position* of Sentences often determines their connection, without the use of Conjunctions.
 - Examples.-1. "The time may come you need not run."-Thomson.
 - 2. "Milton! thou shouldst be living at this hour—
 [For] England hath need of thee."
 - 3. "But Brutus says, he was ambitious,"
- Obs. 8.—Auxiliary Adjective Sentences are commonly introduced by Relative Pronouns and by Possessive Adjectives derived from them.
 - EXAMPLES.—1. "He who fliches from me my good name, Robs me of that which not enriches him."
 - 2. "Lo the poor Indian, whose untitored mind Sees God in clouds or hears him in the wind."
 - 3. "Thou hadst a voice whose sound was like the sea."
- Obs. 9.—Conjunctions that introduce Auxiliary Adverbial Sentences, and some others, indicate the affices of the Sentences which they introduce.

If, Unless, etc., indicate condition As, When, Before, etc., indicate time. For, Hence, Therefore, etc., indicate an inference or cause. But, Yet, Nevertheless, etc., indicate restriction or apposition. Nor, Neither, etc., indicate a negation.

EXAMPLES .- 1. " If sinners entice thee, consent thou not."

- "Speak of me as I am—nothing extenuate, Nor set down aught in malice."
- 8. "Then, when I AM THY CAPTIVE, talk of chains."
- 4. "I go, but I return."

EXCEPTION.—The Conjunction when may introduce an Adjective Sentence that limits a Noun indicating time.

EXAMPLE.—Do you remember the TIME when Lee surrendered to Grant?

EXCEPTION.—The Conjunction where may introduce an Adjective Sentence that limits a Noun indicating place.

Example.—Is there some favored spot where mortals weep no more?

CAUTION.—The words where and when are often improperly used for the Phrase in which.

Incorrect.—"A limited monarchy is a government where the powers and duties of the monarch are limited by a constitution."

Corrected.—A limited monarchy is one in which the powers and duties of the monarch are limited by a constitution.

Obs. 10.—Conjunctions may be omitted only when the connection is sufficiently clear without them.

Examples.—1. "Unnumbered systems, [] suns, and worlds,
Unite to worship thee;

2. While thy majestic greatness fills Space, [] Time, [] Eternity."

Obs. 11.—The Adverb "how" is sometimes improperly used instead of the Conjunction "that."

EXAMPLE.—" She tells me how, with eager speed,
He flew to hear my vocal reed."—Shenstone.

Obs. 12.—Conjunctions sometimes introduce the remnant of a Sentence.

Example.—Though [] afflicted, he is happy.

Obs. 13.—Position.—The proper place for a Conjunction is before the Sentence which it introduces, and between the Words or Phrases which it connects.

EXAMPLE.—"And there lay the rider, distorted and pale,
With the dew on his brow and the rust on his mail."

OBS. 14.—But in Complex Sentences, the Conjunction introducing the Principal Sentence is commonly placed first, and that introducing the Auxiliary Sentence immediately following.

EXAMPLE.—"AND when its yellow lustre smiled
O'er mountains yet untrod,
Each mother held aloft her child
To bless the bow of God,"

But to this rule there are exceptions.

CORRESPONDING CONJUNCTIONS.

Obs. 15.—Many Conjunctions correspond to Adverbs, to Prepositions, and to other Conjunctions.

•
Asso
Soas
Bothand "Both good and bad were gathered in one group,"
Eitheror
Notnor
Neithernor "Neither Alice nor Caroline has been here to-day."
Whetheror
Sothat" He called so loud that all the hollow deep."
Suchthat My engagements are such that I can not go."
Ifthen If you will take the right, then I will go to the left."
Not only but also "She was not only vain, but also extremely ignorant."
Though yet
Becausetherefore "Therefore doth my Father love me, because I lay down my life."

REM.—The Antecedent corresponding word is sometimes expletive.

OBS. 16.—Double Conjunctions are sometimes used.

Examples.-1. "As though he had not been anointed with oil."

 "And yet, fair bow, no fabling dreams, But words of the Most High Have told why first thy robe of beams Was woven in the sky,"

Obs. 17.—But they may not be used when one of them would fully express the connection.

Example.—"There would be no doubt but that they would remain."

The word "but" is unnecessary and improper.

Let the Pupils correct the following

ERRORS.

- 1. William is not as cheerful as usual.
- 2. Either you mistake, else I was misinformed.

- 3. Neither wealth or fame render a man happy.
- Prepositions should not be inserted or omitted contrary to general usage.

 —Kent, p. 435.
 - 5. I can not doubt but that Robert will return.

EXCLAMATIONS.

Rule 14.—Exclamations have no dependent construction.

OBS.—Exclamations may be followed by Words, Phrases, or Sentences.

Examples .-- 1. "O Scotia! my dear, my native soil."

- 2. "Woe! woe! to the riders that trample thee down."
- 8. "O that I could again recall
 My early joys, companions all!"

WORDS OF EUPHONY.

Note.—Words of Euphony are, in their offices, chiefly rhetorical.

REM.—The Principles of Euphony are much required in the structure of all languages; for Euphony, words are altered in form, position, and office—and they are, for Euphony, created or omitted.

OBs.—Euphony allows—

- 1. The Transposition of Words in a Sentence.
- EXAMPLE.—"From peak to peak, the rattling crags amone, Leaps the live thunder."
- 2. The omission of a letter or syllable.

 Example.—"Hark! 'tis the breeze of twilight calling."
- 3. The substitution of one letter for another.
- KEAMPLES.-1. Collect, for Conlect.
 - 2. Syllogism, "Sunlogism,
 - 3. Immigrant, " Inmigrant.
- 4. The addition of a letter, syllable, or word.
- EXAMPLE.—"It was his bounden duty thus to act."
- 5. A word to be separated into parts, and another word inserted between them.

EXAMPLE.—" How much soever we may feel their force."

6. A word to be used not in its ordinary office.

EXAMPLES .-- 1. "And there lay the steed with his nostril ALL wide."

2. "The more I see of this method, THE better I like it."

Position.

Note.—Words of Euphony should be placed in their appropriate connection.

OBS. 1.—In the following Examples this principle is violated:

1. "To think of others, and not only of himself."

Here "only" is used to render "himself" emphatic. A better position would be—"and not of himself only."

- 2. "Joyous Youth and manly Strength and stooping Age are even here."

 Better.—Joyous Youth and manly Strength and even stooping Age are here.
 - 3. "When our hatred is violent, it sinks us even beneath those we hate."

 Retter.—It sinks us beneath even those we hate.

Obs. 2.—A Word repeated in the same connection is to be regarded as a word of Euphony.

EXAMPLES.—"Down! down! the tempest plunges on the sea."

"For life! for life, their flight they ply."

GENERAL RULES.

- 1. In constructing a Sentence, such Words should be chosen as will most clearly convey the sense intended—regard being had also to variety and other principles of taste.
- 2. In expressing Complex ideas, judgment and taste are to be exercised in the use of Phrases and Sentences, when they may equally convey the sense.
- 3. That Modification of Words should be adopted which is in accordance with the most reputable usage.
- 4. The relative *Position* of Words, Phrases, and Sentences should be such as to leave no obscurity in the sense.
- 5. Involved Complex Sentences should not be used when Simple or Independent Sentences would better convey the sense.

PART IV.

PROSODY.

DEF. 1.—That part of the Science of Language which treats of utterance, is called **Prosody**.

Obs.—Utterance is modified by Pauses, by Accent, and by the laws of Versification.

PAUSES.

DEF. 2.—Pauses are cessations of the voice in reading or speaking.

OBS. 1.—Pauses are Rhetorical and Grammatical,

OBS. 2.—Rhetorical Pauses are useful chiefly in arresting attention. They are generally made after or immediately before emphatic words.

They are not indicated by marks.

EXAMPLES.—There is a calm for those who weep,

A rest for weary pilgrims found.

Obs. 3.—Grammatical Pauses are useful—in addition to their Rhetorical effect—in determining the sense.

They are indicated by

MARKS OF PUNCTUATION.

They are—

The Comma...., The Period.......?
The Semicolon...; The Interrogation...?
The Colon.......?
The Exclamation...!

OBS. 4.-In its Rhetorical office,

The Comma requires a short pause in reading. The Semicolon, a pause longer than the Comma. The Colon, a pause longer than the Semicolon.

The Period requires a full pause.

The Dash, the Marks of Exclamation and Interrogation, require pauses corresponding with either of the other marks.

REM.—In the use of Marks of Punctuation, good writers differ; and it is exceedingly difficult for the Teacher to give Rules for their use that can be of general application.

The following Rules are the most important:

COMMA.

Rule 1.—When more than two words of the same construction occur consecutively, the Comma should be repeated after each.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct .- 1. "Veracity, justice, and charity are essential virtues."
 - "There is such an exactness in definition, such a pertinence in proof, such a perspicuity in his detection of sophisms, as have been rarely employed in the Christian cause."—B. B. Edwards.
- Incorrect.—8. "The dripping rock the mountain's misty top Swell on the sight and brighten with the dawn."
 - 4. Fame wisdom love and power were mine.

Obs.—Exception.—The Comma is not placed between an Adjective and its Noun, although preceded by other Adjectives of the same construction.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.-1. "David was a brave, martial, enterprising prince."
 - 2. "With that dull-rooted, callous impudence."
- Incorrect.—3. "The tall, dark, mountains and the deep-toned sea."

 Ah! how unjust to Nature and himself
 Is thoughtless thankless inconsistent, man!
- RULE 2.—The parts of a Complex Sentence should be separated by a Comma, when the Auxiliary precedes the Principal Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct .- 1. "Where wealth and freedom reign, contentment fails."
 - 2. "If thine enemy hunger, feed him; if he thirst, give him drink."
- Incorrect.-3. "When the cock crew he wept."
 - 4. "As ye journey sweetly sing."
 - RULE. 3. An Adjunct Phrase or Sentence, used to

express an incidental fact, and placed between the parts of the Principal Sentence, is separated by Commas.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.—1. "The grave, that never spoke before, Hath found, at length, a tongue to chide."

Incorrect .- 2. "Truth, crushed to earth will rise again."

3. "Rise sons of harmony and hail the morn."

EXCEPTION.—But when an Adjunct Phrase or Sentence which is indispensable in perfecting the sense, immediately follows the word which it qualifies, the Comma should not intervene.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.-1. "Every one that findeth me, shall slay me."

2. "Let school-taught pride dissemble all it can."

Incorrect.-3. "The fur, that warms a monarch, warmed a bear."

Rule 4.—Words, Phrases, and Sentences thrown in between the parts of a Principal Sentence are separated by Commas.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.—1. "Go, then, where, wrapt in fear and gloom, Fond hearts and true are sighing."

2. "Now, therefore, I pray thee, let thy servant abide."

Incorrect.-3. "It is a clear lake the very picture ordinarily of repose."

RULE 5.—A Phrase or a Sentence used as the Subject of a Verb, requires a Comma between it and the Verb.

EXAMPLES.

Correct.-1. To do good to others, constitutes an important object of existence.

2. That we are rivals, does not necessarily make us enemies.

Incorrect.—3. "That all men are created equal is a self-evident truth."
"His being a minister prevented his rising to civil power."

RULE 6.-Words used in direct address should be

EXAMPLES.

Correct.—1. "Thou, whose spell can raise the dead, Bid the prophet's form appear."

Incorrect.—2. "Samuel raise thy buried head King behold the phantom seer!"

separated by a Comma.

Rule 7.—Adjunct Sentences, Phrases, and sometimes

Words, not in their natural position, should be separated by a Comma.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.—1. "Into this illustrious society, he whose character I have endeavored feebly to portray, has, without doubt, entered."
 - "He, like the world, his ready visits pays, Where Fortune smiles."
- Incorrect.—3. "To him who in the love of Nature holds
 Communion with her visible forms
 She speaks a various language."
- OBS.—An Independent Phrase should be separated from its Sentence by a Comma.
 - Correct.-"Thus talking, hand in hand, alone they passed."
- Incorrect.—" Captain Smith, having gone to see his wife, desires the prayers of the congregation for his safe return."

SEMICOLON.

RULE 8.—The Semicolon is used at the close of a Sentence which, by its terms, promises an additional Sentence.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.—1. "The Essayists occupy a conspicuous place in the last century; but, somehow, I do not feel disposed to set much store by them."
- Incorrect.-2. "It thunders but I tremble not
 - My trust is firm in God."
 - Wisdom is better than rubies, It can not be gotten for gold."

OBS.—By many writers, the Semicolon is used to separate short Sentences which have not a close relation to each other.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.—1. "He was a plain man, without any pretension to pulpit eloquence, or any other accomplishment; he had no gift of imagination; his language was hard and dry; and his illustrations, homely."
- Incorrect.—2. "I had a seeming friend I gave him gifts and he was gone
 I had an open enemy I gave him gifts, and won him—
 The very heart of hate melteth at a good man's love."

COLON.

RULE 9.—The Colon is used at the close of a Sentence, when another Sentence is added as a direct illustration or inference.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.—1. "Let me give you a piece of good counsel, my cousin; follow my laudable example: write when you can: take Time's forelock in one hand and a pen in the other, and so make sure of your opportunity."
- Incorrect.—2. "The wicked fiee, when no man pursueth but the righteous, are bold as a lion."

REM.—The Colon is not much used by late writers—its place being supplied by the Semicolon, the Dash, or the Period.

PERIOD.

RULE 10.—The Period is used at the close of a complete or independent proposition.

Obs.—The Period is also used after initial letters and abbrevia-

EXAMPLES.

Correct.-J. Q. Adams, LL.D., M. C.

Incorrect.-A S Barnes and Co 51 John St N Y.

DASH.

RULE 11.—The Dash is used to indicate—

- 1. An abrupt transition.
- 2. An unfinished sentence.
- 3. Succession of particulars.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.—1. "They met to expatiate and confer on state affairs—to read the newspapers—to talk a little scandal—and so forth—and the result was—as we have been told—considerable dissipation."—Wilson's Burns.
- Incorrect.—2. "To me the 'Night Thoughts' is a poem on the whole most animating and delightful amazingly energetic full of the richest instruction improving to the mind much of it worthy of being committed to memory some thoughts obscure extravagant tinged occasionally with flattery."
 - OBS. 1.—The Dash is often used instead of the Parenthesis.
 - EXAMPLE.—" As they disperse they look very sad—and, no doubt they are so—but had they been, they would not have taken to digging."
- Obs. 2.—Many modern writers use the Dash in place of the Semicolon and the Colon—and sometimes with them.
 - EXAMPLE.—"Ye have no need of prayer;—
 Ye have no sins to be forgiven."—Sprague.

EXCLAMATION.

RULE 12.—The mark of Exclamation is used after a Word, Phrase, or Sentence whose prominent office is to express sudden or intense emotion.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct.—1. "Hark! a strange sound affrights mine ear."
 - 2. "To arms!—they come!—the Greek, the Greek!"
- Incorrect.—3. "O my coëvals, remnants of yourselves."
 - 4. "Poor human ruins tottering o'er the grave."

INTERROGATION.

RULE 13.—The mark of Interrogation is used after a Word, Phrase, or Sentence by which a question is asked.

EXAMPLES.

- Correct .- 1. "Why is my sleep disquieted?"
 - 2. Who is he that calls the dead?
- Incorrect.-3, "Is it for thee the lark ascends and sings."
 - 4. "What pleasing study cheats the tedious day."

REM.—When the Interrogation or Exclamation is used, the Comma, Semicolon, Colon, or Period is omitted.

GRAMMATICAL AND RHETORICAL SIGNS.

OBS.—the signs used in writing are—

 The Apostrophe	8. Inflections Rising Circumflex
3. The Hyphen	9. Measures { Long
4. The Bracket []	10. Caret A
5. The Parenthesis ()	11. Dieresis
6. References	12. Index
7. The Brace	19 Cootion C

DEF. 3.—The **Apostrophe** (') is used to indicate the omission of a letter, and to change a Noun into a Possessive Specifying Adjective.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Hearts from which 'twas death to sever;

- 2. Eyes, this world can ne'er restore."
- 3. "How lightly mounts the Muse's wing."

DEF. 4.—The Quotation ("") is used to inclose words taken from some other author or book.

EXAMPLE.—"Southey, among all our living poets," says Professor Wilson, "stands aloof and 'alone in his glory."

REM.—A Quotation quoted is indicated by single marks.

EXAMPLE.—(See the latter part of the last Example.)

Def. 5.—The **Hyphen** (-) is used between two elements of a compound word.

EXAMPLES. - Money-market-ink-stand-black-board.

REM.—It is also used at the end of a line, when the word is not finished. (See this Rem.)

DEF. 6.—The **Bracket** [] is used to inclose a letter or mark given as an explanatory example, or a Word, Phrase, or Sentence thrown in by a reviewer, and not a part of the original sentence.

Example.—"Mr. Secor found means to have Mr. Butler recommended to him [Lord Talbot] for his chaplain."

DEF. 7.—The **Parenthesis** () is used to inclose a Phrase or Sentence explanatory of, or incidental to, the main Sentence.

EXAMPLE.—"Come, my Ambition! let us mount together,
(To mount Lorenzo never can refuse,)
And from the clouds where pride delights to dwell,
Look down on earth."

REM.-Modern writers often use the Dash for the same purpose.

EXAMPLE.—"The monotony of a calm—for the trade-wind had already failed us—was agreeably relieved yesterday by the neighborhood of two ships, etc."—Malcolm.

DEF. 8.—References (* † ‡ §) direct attention to notes at the margin or the bottom of the page.

REM.—The letters of the Latin or Greek alphabets, and sometimes figures, are used for the same purpose.

DEF. 9.—The **Brace** () is used to include many species in one class.

EXAMPLE.—Adjectives are distinguished as Specifying,

REM.—By the old poets, the Brace was also used to join the lines of a triplet.

Def. 10.—Inflections ('``) indicate elevations or depressions of the key-note in reading.

EXAMPLES.-" Do you go to Albany'?" "I go to Utica"."

- DEF. 11.—**Measures** \begin{cases} (-) indicates the long sound of a Syllable, as hate, mete, nete. (\(^{\)}\) indicates the short sound of a Syllable, as hat, met, net.
- Def. 12.—The Caret (\wedge) is used between two Words, to indicate the place of words omitted and placed above the line.

of mankind EXAMPLES.—" The proper study A is man."

DEF. 13.—Dieresis (...) is placed over the second of two vowels, to show that they belong to different syllables.

Examples.—Preëmption.—Coëval.—Reëducate.

Obs.—The Hyphen is sometimes placed between the vowels for a similar purpose.

EXAMPLES.-Co-operate.-Re-educate.

- DEF. 14.—The Index () is used to point out a word or sentence considered worthy of special notice.
- DEF. 15.—The Section (§) marks the divisions of a chapter or book.
- DEF. 16.—The **Paragraph** (¶) is used when a new subject of remark is introduced.
- REM.—The sign of the Paragraph is retained in the Holy Scriptures; but in other compositions the Paragraph is sufficiently indicated by its commencing a new line on the page.
- DEF. 17.—Accent is a stress of voice placed on a particular syllable in pronouncing a word.
- Def. 18.—Emphasis is a stress of voice placed on a particular word in a sentence.

OBS.—This mark is indicated—

- 1. In manuscript, by a line drawn under the emphatic word.
- On a printed page, by the use of *Italic* letters—CAPITAL letters are used to indicate words still more emphatic.

COMPOSITION.

DEF. 19.—Composition—as the word implies—is the art of placing together words so as to communicate ideas.

PROSE AND VERSE.

In **Prose Composition**, Words and Phrases are arranged with a primary reference to the *sense*.

In **Verse**, the Sound and Measure of Words and Syllables determine their position.

Obs.—Among the various kinds of Prose Compositions may be mentioned the following:

Narrative, Descriptive, Didactic, Historical, Biographical.

Verse.

Def. 20.—Verse consists of words arranged in measured lines, constituting a regular succession of accented and unaccented Syllables.

Obs.—Verse is used in Poetry. The different kinds of Poetry are—

Lyric,	Charade,	Sonnet,
Dramatic,	Ballad,	Pastoral,
Epic,	Epigram,	Elegiac,
Didactic,	Epitaph,	Madrigal.

DEF. 21.—Lyric Poetry is—as its name imports—such as may be set to music. It includes the "Ode" and the "Song."

Obs. 1.—Lyric Poetry is of three kinds, the Ode, the Hymn, and the Song.

Obs. 2.—The Ode is generally longer than the other kinds of Lyric Poetry, and is often irregular in its structure.

Familiar Examples.—"Alexander's Feast," by *Dryden*.
"Ode on the Passions," "Collins.
"Immortality," "Wordsworth.

Let the Pupil give other Examples.

Obs. 3.—The Hymn is shorter, and is arranged in regular stanzas adapted to sacred worship.

Familiae Examples.—"The Psalms and Hymns" in general use in Christian congregations.

Obs. 4.—The Song is also short, but is more varied in its stanzas, and is adapted to secular uses.

Familiar Examples.—"Irish Melodies," by Moore.
"Songs," "Barry Cornwall.

Let the Pupil give other Examples.

REM.—English Lyric Poetry makes use of Rhyme exclusively.

Def. 22.—Epic Poetry is a historical representation—real or fictitious—of great events.

REM.—Epic Poetry may employ either rhyme or blank verse.

EXAMPLES.—Rhyme.—" Lady of the Lake," by Scott.

"Curse of Kehama," " Southey.

Blank Verse.—"Paradise Lost," "Milton.
"Course of Time," "Pollok.

Let the Pupil give other Examples.

Def. 23.—Dramatic Poetry is a poem descriptive of scenes, events, or character, and is adapted to the stage.

Obs.—It includes { The Tragic and The Comic.

Examples.—Tragic.—"Othello," by Shakepeare.

Comic.—"All's Well that Ends Well," by Shakepeare.

Let the Pupil give other Examples.

DEF. 24.—Didactic Poetry is that style adapted to the inculcation of science or duty.

EXAMPLES.—" Pleasures of the Imagination," by Akenside.
"Art of Preserving Health," " Armstrong.

Let the Pupil give other Examples.

DEF. 25.—The **Charade** is a short poem, usually in a Lyrical form, containing a *Riddle*.

Def. 26.—An **Epigram** is a witty poem, short, and generally abounding in ludicrous expressions.

EXAMPLE.—"Swans sing before they die; 'twere no bad thing Should certain persons die before they sing."

DEF. 27.—An **Epitaph** is a poetic inscription to the memory of some departed person.

EXAMPLE.—" Underneath this stone doth lie
As much beauty as could die,
Which in life did harbor give
To more virtue than doth live."—Jonson.

DEF. 28.—Elegiac Poetry is that species used to commemorate the death of some person.

EXAMPLES.—"Lysidas," by Milton.
"Elegy," " Gray.

DEF. 29.—The **Sonnet** is a poem devoted to the development of a single thought, in rhyming verse of a peculiar structure, and generally of fourteen lines.

DEF. 30.—The **Madrigal** is a Lyric poem of an amatory nature, and of a lively species of verse.

DEF. 31.—Pastoral Poetry relates to rural life, and is generally a song.

EXAMPLES.—"Rural Sports," by Gay.
"The Falls of the Passaic," by Irving.

DEF. 32.—The **Ballad** is a Lyric poem, of a Narrative cast, in a simple or rude style of composition.

Example.—" Battle of Brunnenberg," by Ferris.

VERSIFICATION.

DEF. 1.—Versification is the art of making verse i. e., the proper arrangement of a certain number of Syllables in a line.

Note.—There are two prominent distinctions in Verse,

- 1. Blank Verse.
- 2. Rhyme.

Def. 2.—Blank Verse consists in measured lines

usually of ten Syllables each, and which may or may not end with the same sound.

EXAMPLE.—" 'Tis midnight's holy hour; and silence now
Is brooding, like a gentle spirit, o'er
The still and pulseless world. Hark! on the winds
The bell's deep tones are swelling; 'tis the knell
Of the departed year."

DEF. 3.—Rhyming Verse consists of measured lines, of which two or more end with the same sound.

EXAMPLES.

Rhymes successive.—"Thou bright glittering star of even!
Thou gem upon the brow of heaven!
Oh! were this fluttering spirit free,
How quick 'twould spread its wings to thee!"

Rhymes alternating.—" Oh! sacred star of evening, tell
In what unseen celestial sphere
Those spirits of the perfect dwell—
Too pure to rest in sadness here,"

DEF. 4.—A line in Poetry is technically called a Verse.

Example.—" And I am glad that he has lived thus long."

REM.—Verses are of different lengths.

Def. 5.—A half verse is called a Hemistich.

EXAMPLE.—" I, too, will hasten back with lightning speed,

DEF. 6.—Two rhyming verses which complete the sense are called a Couplet.

Examples.—1. "Look round our world; behold the chain of love, Combining all below and all above."

And more true joy Marcellus exiled feels, Than Cæsar with a senate at his heels."

DEF. 7.—Three verses which rhyme together are a Triplet.

EXAMPLE.—" So fair, so sweet, withal so sensitive,
Would that the little flowers were born to live,
Conscious of half the pleasure which they give."

Def. 8.—Four lines or more are called a Stanza.

EXAMPLE.—" Full many a gem of purest ray serenc,
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear;
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air."

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Note.—Verses may end with Rhyming Syllabis, of Rhyming Words.
EXAMPLE.—" We come, we come, a little band, As children of the nation; We are joined in heart, we are joined in hand, To keep the Declaration."
Rem.—In the above stanza, the first and third lines end wit Rhyming Words—the second and fourth, with Rhyming Syllables.
Def. 9.—A collection of Syllables is called a Foot.
Note.—A Foot may consist of $\begin{cases} \text{two Syllables, or} \\ \text{three Syllables.} \end{cases}$
DEF. 10.—Feet of two Syllables are the
Trocheefirst long, second short — — Iambusfirst short, second long — — Pyrrhicboth short — — Spondeeboth long — —
Feet of three Syllables are the Dactylone long and two short Anapesttwo short and one long Amphibrach.first short, second long, third short Tribrachthree short
REM.—Most English Poetry is written in Iambic, Trochaic, o Anapæstic Verse.
TROCHAIC VERSE.
1. Hexameter, or six feet.
"On a mountain stretched be neath a hoary willow, Lay a shepherd swain, and viewed the rolling billow."
2. Pentameter, or five feet.
"Rouse him like a rattling peal of thunder."
3. Tetrameter, or four feet.
On the mountain's top ap pearing, Lo, the sacred herald stands!
4. Trimeter, or three feet.
"How I love to see thee, Golden evening sun."

- 5. Dimeter, or two feet. Rich the | treasure, Sweet the pleasure.
- 6. Monometer, or one foot.
 Ringing
 Singing.

IAMBIC VERSE.

1. Six feet-Hexameter.

The praise | of Bac | chus then | the sweet musi | cian sung.

2. Five feet-Pentameter.

Oh, I | have loved | in youth's | fair ver | nal morn, To spread | ima | gina | tion's wild | est wing.

3. Four feet-Tetrameter.

There is | a calm | for those | who weep, A rest | for wea | ry pil | grims found.

4. Three feet-Trimeter.

What sought | they thus | afar? Bright jew | els of | the mine?

- 5. Two feet-Dimeter.
- "I am | the grave."
- 6. One foot—Monometer.
 "My home."

ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

1. Four feet.

But we stead | fastly gazed | on the face | of the dead.

2. Three feet.

"And I loved | her the more | when I heard Such tenderness fall from her tongue."

3. Two feet.

"For the night only draws A thin veil o'er the day."

DACTYLIC VERSE.

1. Four feet.

Come, ye dis | consolate, | where'er ye | languish.

2. Three feet.

Earth has no | sorrows that | Heaven can not | heal.

3. Two feet.

Free from anx | iety, Care, and satiety.

4. One foot. Cheerfully Fearfully.

THE AMPHIBRACH.

- "There is a | bleak desert | where daylight | grows weary
 Of wasting its smiles on a region so dreary."
- "With storm-dar | ing pinion | and sun-ga | zing.eye,
 The gray forest eagle is king of the sky."
- "There's pleasure | in freedom, | whatever | the season, That makes every object look lovely and fair."
- OBS. 1.—The first Syllable of a verse is sometimes omitted.

EXAMPLES.

- [] "And there | lay the ri | der, distort | ed and pale,
 With the dew | on his brow | and the rust | on his mail."
- OBS. 2.—A syllable is sometimes added to a line.

EXAMPLES.

- "Earth has no | sorrows that | Heaven can not | heal."
 "A guar | dian an | gel o'er | my life | presid | ing.
- "A guar | dian an | gel o'er | my life | presid | ing, Doubling my pleasures, and my cares dividing."
- Obs. 3.—The different measures are sometimes combined in the same line.

EXAMPLES.

- "May comes, | May comes, | we have called | her long, May comes | o'er the moun | tains with light | and song; We may trace | her steps | o'er the wak | ening earth, By the winds | which tell | of the vio | let's birth."
- Obs. 4.—Sometimes the last syllable of a line becomes the first syllable in the first foot of the next.

EXAMPLE.

"On the cold | cheek of death | smiles and ro | ses are blend | ing,
And beau | ty immor | tal awakes | from the tomb."

FIGURES.

NOTE.—Language is modified in its structure, style, and utterance by the use of **Figures**.

Def. 1.—A Figure of speech is a licensed departure from the ordinary structure or use of a word in a Sentence.

Obs.—Figures are employed to give strength, beauty, or melody to Language.

Note.—Figures are { Grammatical or Rhetorical.

- Def. 2.—A Grammatical Figure is a deviation from the ordinary form or office of a word in a Sentence.
- Def. 3.—A **Rhetorical Figure** is a deviation from the ordinary application of words in the expression of thought.
 - I. FIGURES MODIFYING THE FORMS OF WORDS. These are called—

Aphæresis, Apocope, Synæresis, Syncope, Prosthesis, Paragoge, Diæresis, Tmesis.

DEF. 4.—Aphæresis allows the elision of one or more of the first letters of a word.

Examples.—1. "'Mid scenes of confusion."

- 2. "And therefore thou may'st think my 'havior light."—Juliet.
- 3. "What! have you let the false enchanter 'scape?"-Millon.

Def. 5.—**Prosthesis** allows a syllable to be prefixed to a word.

Examples.-1. "Else would a maiden blush bepaint my cheek."-Juliet.

- 2. "Let fall adown his silver beard some tears."-Thomson.
- 3. "The great archangel from his warlike toil Surceased."—Milton.

DEF. 6.—Apocope allows the elision of one or more of the final letters of a word.

EXAMPLES.-1. "And that is spoke.. with such a dying fall."

- 2. "Tho' the whole loosened Spring around her blows."
- 3. "T' whom th' archangel."-Milton.
- DEF. 7.—Paragoge allows a syllable to be annexed to a word.

Examples.-1. "Withouten trump was proclamation made."-Thomson.

2. "Nor deem that kindly nature did him wrong."-Bryant.

Def. 8.—Synæresis allows two syllables to become one.

EXAMPLES.—Extra session—ordinary session—extraordinary session.

DEF. 9.—Diæresis separates two vowels into different syllables.

Examples .- Cooperate-relterate.

DEF. 10.—Syncope allows one or more letters to be taken from the middle of a word.

Examples.-1. "Or serve they as a flow'ry verge to bind

- 2. The fluid skirts of that same wat'ry cloud,
- Lest it again dissolve and show'r the earth."—Millon.

DEF. 11.—**Tmesis** allows a word to be inserted between the parts of a compound word.

EXAMPLE.—" How much soever we may desire it."

Obs.—Sometimes two figures are combined in the same word.

Example.—"Ah! whence is that sound which now larums his ear?"

II. FIGURES MODIFYING THE OFFICES OF WORDS.

These are called

RHETORICO-GRAMMATICAL FIGURES.

They are-

Ellipsis,
Pleonasm.

Syllipsis, Enallage. Hyperbaton.

DEF. 12.—Ellipsis allows the omission of one or more words necessary to complete the grammatical construction, when custom has rendered them unnecessary to complete the sense.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Thou art perched aloft on the beetling crag,
And the waves are white below []."

- "Unnumbered systems [], suns, and worlds, Unite to worship thee,
- 8. White thy majestic greatness fills Space [], Time [], Eternity."

DEF. 13.—Pleonasm allows the introduction of words not necessary to complete the grammatical construction of a Sentence.

Examples.-1. "The moon herself is lost in heaven."

2. "I sit me down, a pensive hour to spend."

DEF. 14.—Syllipsis allows a word to be used not in its literal sense.

EXAMPLE.—" And there lay the steed, with his nostril all wide."

DEF. 15.—Enallage allows the use of one word for another of similar origin, or the substitution of one modification for another.

EXAMPLE.-" A world devote to universal wreck."

Def. 16.—**Hyperbaton** allows the transposition of words in a Sentence.

EXAMPLE .- " His voice SUBLIME, is heard afar."

III. FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

They are-

Simile, Antithesis. Vision. Paralepsis, Metaphor, Metonomy, Allegory, Synecdoche, Climax. Anti-Climax, Personification, Apostrophe. Irony, Interrogation, Alliteration. Exclamation, Hyperbole.

Def. 17.—A Simile is a direct comparison.

Example.—" The Assyrian came down like the wolf on the fold."

DEF. 18.—A Metaphor is an indirect comparison.

Example.—"There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune."

Def. 19.—An Allegory is an extended metaphor, by

which a narration, real or fictitious, is made to convey an analogous truth or fiction.

Example.—"Eternity's vast ocean lies before thee;
There, there, Lorenzo, thy Clarissa sails;
Give thy mind sea-room; keep it wide of earth—
That rock of souls immortal; cut thy cord;
Weigh anchor; spread thy sails; call every wind;
Eye thy great Pole-star; make the land of life."

DEF. 20.—Personification represents inanimate things as being endowed with life and volition.

EXAMPLES.—1. "An old *Experience* learns too late That all is vanity below."

2. "Joy has her tears, and Transport has her death."

DEF. 21.—Irony makes a sentence convey a meaning the opposite of its ordinary sense.

EXAMPLE.—"And we, brave men, are satisfied

If we ourselves escape his sword."

Def. 22.—**Hyperbole** exaggerates the truth.

EKAMPLE.--

"With fury driven,

The waves mount up, and wash the face of heaven."

DEF. 23.—Antithesis contrasts two or more things with each other.

Examples.-1. " Zealous though modest, innocent though free."

"By honor and dishonor, by evil report and good report, as deceivers, and yet true."

DEF. 24.—Metonomy puts one thing for another—

The cause for the effect, The effect for the cause.

The container for the thing contained,

An attribute or quality for the thing or person.

EXAMPLES.-1. "Shall the sword devour forever?"

2. "Thy hand, unseen, sustains the poles."

8. "His ear is ever open to their cry."

4. "I am much delighted in reading Homer."

5. "He has returned to his cups again."

6. "I'll plunge thee headlong in the whelming tide."

DEF. 25.—Synecdoche puts a part for a whole, and a whole for a part.

- Examples.—1. "When the tempest stalks abroad, Seek the shelter of my roof."
 - 2. "Oh! ever cursed be the hand That wrought this ruin in the land."
- Def. 26.—Apostrophe is a sudden transition from the subject of a discourse to address a person or thing, present or absent.

EXAMPLE.—"This is a tale for fathers and for mothers. Young men and young women, you can not understand it."—E. Everett.

DEF. 27.—Interrogation expresses an assertion in the form of a question.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Looks it not like the king?"

"He that formed the eye, shall he not see?"

Def. 28.—Exclamation expresses a sudden or intense emotion.

Example.—"O liberty! O sound once delightful to every Roman ear!"

DEF. 29.—Vision represents past or future time as present to the view.

EXAMPLE.—"I see them on their winding way,
About their ranks the moonbeams play."

DEF. 30.—Paralepsis is a figure by which the main truth is expressed incidentally, or with a professed effort of the speaker to conceal it.

Example.—"Without alluding to your habits of intemperance, I would ask, how can you attempt to justify your present inattention to business and the neglect of your family?"

DEF. 31.—Climax is that form of expression by which the thoughts are made to rise by successive gradations.

EXAMPLE.—"He aspired to be the highest; above the people, above the authorities, above the LAWS, above his COUNTRY."

Def. 32.—Anti-Climax is the opposite of the climax.

EXAMPLE.—"How has expectation darkened into anxiety, anxiety into dread, and dread into despair."—Irving.

Def. 33.—Alliteration is the repetition of the same letter at the beginning of two or more words immediately succeeding each other.

EXAMPLES.—1. "Up the high hill he heaves a huge, round stone."

2. "He carves with classic chisel the Corinthian capital that
crowns the column."

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

PAGE

314.—What is Prosony?

Name the different marks of punctuation.

315.—When is a Comma properly used?

317.—When a Semicolon?—a Colon?—a Period?

318.—When is a *Dash* properly used ?—an *Exclamation?*When do we use a mark of *Interrogation?*

319.—Name the Grammatical Signs.

What is an Apostrophe?—a Quotation?—a Hyphen?

What is a Bracket?—a Parenthesis?—Reference marks?

What is a Brace?—Marks of Inflection?—Measures?

What is a Caret?—a Dieresis?—an Index?—a Section?

What is a Paragraph?—How are Paragraphs commonly indicated?

What is Accent?—What is Emphasis?

322.—What is Composition?—What are the varieties?

What is Prose?-Name the various kinds of Prose.

What is Verse?-When properly used?

Name and define the various kinds of Poetry.

324.—What is Versification?

What are the distinctions of Verse?

What is Blank Verse?—What is Rhyming Verse?

What is a Verse?—a Hemistich?—a Couplet?

What is a Triplet?-What is a Stanza?

What is a Foot?—A foot may have how many Syllables?

What are the Feet of two Syllables?—of three Syllables?

What is a Trochee?—an Iambus?—a Pyrrhic?—a Spondee?

What is a Dactyl?—an Anapest?—an Amphibrach?—a Tribrach?

What measures are commonly used in English Poetry?

829.—What is a FIGURE OF SPEECH?—Why are they used?
What is a Grammatical Figure?—a Rhetorical Figure?
Name the figures which modify the forms of Words.

331.—Name and define all the Figures of Rhetoric.

NOTE.—Let the Pupils be required to point out the various Figures of Speech in any poem or other composition at hand.

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